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FOR

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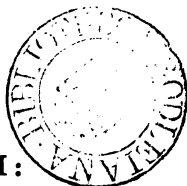
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## PREFACE.

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No apology can be necessary for the issue of a new School History of England. The utility of such works for educational purposes is amply attested by the great number in that department which compete for public favour, and has been experienced in a very gratifying form by the Publishers in the success of their larger Histories of England and of the United Kingdom.

Their object in preparing the present volume is to bring the means of acquiring sound historical information within the reach of the young. To those who may be unable to procure larger works, or may not have time to peruse them, it is confidently recommended as a text-book containing a clear and succinct account of all the leading events in English history ; while the pupil who has the prospect of pursuing his studies farther will find it an easy, simple, and concise introduction. The features by which it is hoped that it will be distinguished from other publications of the same kind are the simplicity and distinctness of the narrative, and its emphatic bearing on all those matters connected with the rise of the national power, the progress of the people, and the development of the constitution, which are best suited to give a practically useful historical education to British citizens. Great care has been taken to ensure accuracy and impartiality ; while the latest and most enlightened views in English history, and especially those developed in the brilliant volumes of Mr Macaulay, have received full and attentive consideration.

EDINBURGH, January 1861.





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1. THE ROMANS.—It was in the 55th year before the birth of Christ that the great statesman and warrior Julius Cæsar, after completing the conquest of Gaul, invaded Britain. Its inhabitants, who were thinly scattered over the island, were not at all more civilized than the barbarous tribes of New Zealand in the present day, whom they resembled in many particulars. In old tombs, or fields of battle, specimens of their arms and tools are still dug up: these consist of spear and arrow heads, hatchets and knives, ingeniously made of flint. They were not acquainted with the use of lime in building, but lived mostly in subterranean dwellings covered with large slabs of stone. With the same rude material they erected many remarkable monuments, which astonish and confound the modern architect. Such are the druidical circles of Stonehenge and other places, consisting of huge upright masses of rock; surmounted by transverse blocks of immense size. To their skill also are ascribed the famous *logans* or rocking stones, so nicely balanced that the finger of a child can set them in motion. The soil was very poorly cultivated, and many districts which are now fruitful corn-fields were then barren wastes or impassable morasses.

2. It would seem at the present day but a poor boast for a powerful and civilized empire like Rome to gain victories over such tribes, but the inhabitants of Britain made a determined

resistance, and nearly drove back the great Cæsar and his disciplined army of 12,000 men. He first landed in Kent, and even after a long contest he had not penetrated far into the island. He was fiercely resisted by a chief on the banks of the Thames, called by the Romans Cassivellaunus, who was with difficulty brought to a partial submission. As the country was poor and the people brave, England offered but little inducement to the Roman conquerors. The petty kings, however, quarrelled among themselves, and some of them sought assistance from the invaders, which brought to the country another army under Plautius, nearly a hundred years after the departure of Cæsar. Many hard contests took place before a permanent settlement was made in the territories south of the Thames. But even there the hope of resistance was not altogether extinguished, and a confederacy of chiefs, under a bold leader named Caractacus, made a desperate effort to throw off the yoke of the invaders. He was defeated in this attempt, and afterwards betrayed into the hands of the Romans. When paraded through Rome as a trophy of victory, he preserved the stern independent aspect of a free man, and his commanding appearance and high bearing elicited much admiration from his luxurious conquerors.

3. Upwards of one hundred and thirty years elapsed after Cæsar's landing ere any considerable portion of the island was under the sway of Rome. The principal acquisitions were made by Julius Agricola, who was appointed to the command of Britain in the year 78 of the Christian era. It was his policy to civilize and conciliate the people while he showed them the power of the Roman arms. He became so far master of England that he even penetrated a considerable distance into Scotland and fought with the fierce Caledonians. His conquests there, however, did not last long, and it was necessary to build a rampart or wall, with forts at intervals, from the Solway Frith to the east coast, to protect the Roman province from the inroads of the barbarians. It was called Adrian's Wall, and for a considerable time marked the boundary of the empire. The people of England were now more or less amalgamated with the Romans, though they were not always subject to the emperor, for towards the end of the third century Carausius, a bold and skilful general, put himself at the head of the troops in Britain, and made himself independent, coining money and assuming the imperial authority. Nearly a century later, Maximus, who is supposed to have been a native Briton, reigned in England, and attempted, chiefly with British troops, the subjugation of the whole Western empire. At this time the Romans were

too closely pressed upon by the various barbarous tribes, whose wrath they had excited by their tyranny and insolence, to be able to govern England. The natives, who had become comparatively civilized, made bitter complaints of the incursions of the wild Picts and Scots from the north; but it was impossible to aid them, and in the year 420 Honorius finally released the English province from its dependence on Rome.

Having been so long under a Roman government, the people had naturally acquired the habits and language of their rulers. They were at first impregnated with a belief in the heathen polytheism, but as the truths of Christianity made progress among the Romans themselves, they displaced idolatry in Britain. In so remote a province the Romans would not indulge in the luxury and grandeur of their capital, but remains are from time to time found underground which show that they lived in comfort and opulence. The ploughshare occasionally turns up the pavement, made of stones of various colours, and arrayed in some pleasing pattern, which formed the floor of some great man's house. Their villas were generally built in the most sheltered and fruitful spots. They were fond of bathing, and it is known that they had discovered and made use of the warm springs at the city of Bath, since remains of temples erected by them have been there dug up. Where London now stands they had a considerable town, which was called Augusta.

4. THE SAXONS.—After England was abandoned by the Roman government, it was shaken as well by internal dissension as by the invasions of the Picts and Scots. There was a Roman party and a British party, headed respectively by Aurelius Ambrosius and Vortigern. The people thus divided suffered so much from the continued and harassing attacks of the northern barbarians as to be prepared to welcome any means of protection against their inroads. The northern coasts of Europe were at that time occupied by hardy, fierce, ambitious races of men, who have received the various titles of Jutes, Angles, Saxons, and Scandinavians. Dwelling on the shores of a stormy sea, with little that is valuable to induce them to till their lands, they had become more accomplished than any other nation in the art of moving on the water. Using this faculty to their own profit, they lived by piracy, attacking not only vessels but towns on the seacoast. They would pounce on some district with a swarm of their small vessels or boats, amounting perhaps to several hundreds. Mooring them close to the land they would make a sudden inroad, pillage whatever was worth removing, and be back



again to their vessels before the country could be raised to resist them. There was not yet much in England to tempt the incursions of these pirates, but they came over occasionally, and it was thought good policy to induce them to fight against the Picts and Scots. It has been said that a bargain to this effect was struck between two of their chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, with Vortigern; but the King of Kent probably looked no farther than the destruction of his rival Ambrosius. When once the Saxons began to get a footing in England they came over in larger masses; and one chief established himself in one district, as Cerda did in Wessex, while another would select what remained unappropriated, as Ida, landing farther northwards, seized on Durham. Their incursions began in the middle of the fifth century, and for nearly two hundred years they poured as it were into the island wave after wave, involving the inhabitants in continual war and turmoil, until at last they nearly drove the whole of the British inhabitants out of the country afterwards called England, leaving them only Wales and the district of Strathclyde, chiefly situated in Scotland, as their place of refuge.

5. When the Saxons had established themselves, their various provinces were ruled by different chiefs, and the country was called a *Heptarchy*—a word of Greek origin, and meaning seven governments. These were Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia. But sometimes they were fewer, sometimes more numerous, than seven. With the incursions of the Saxons Christianity disappeared, and the wild and horrible worship of the northern barbarians was substituted for it. Their deities were something like those of ancient Rome, but of a still more savage and gigantic character. It may serve to show how completely the country was given up to this wild superstition, that words in very common use among us—the days of the week for instance—are derived from the Saxon gods. Thus Wednesday is the day of Odin, or Woden, who has been compared to the Mercury of the ancients. Thursday is called after Thor, the god of war, and Friday after Freya, the goddess of love. To restore Christianity to the land was the work of Pope Gregory the Great near the end of the sixth century. It is said that when he was a simple monk he saw in the slave-market of Rome some beautiful fair-haired children, and being told that they were *Angli* or English, he said they would rather be *angeli*, or angels, were they but Christians, and he forthwith devoted himself to the task of converting them. Forty monks under St Augustin were sent to accomplish this mission. Ethelbert the Bretwalda, or

chief king among the Saxon rulers, having married a daughter of the King of Paris, herself a Christian lady, was persuaded by her to give them a kindly welcome, and the work of conversion made rapid progress.

The kingdoms of the heptarchy gradually decreased in number, two or three becoming sometimes merged into one. At length there were but three, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. A contest now took place among the monarchs of these three districts for supreme command. Northumbria, after a long scene of internal anarchy, was absorbed in Mercia; and Offa, the victorious monarch of this province, appeared to have very nearly completed the conquest of the others. His successor Bernulf, however, who had usurped the throne, was defeated by Egbert, king of Wessex, under whose successors the whole Anglo-Saxon people were united.

6. THE DANES.—As the Saxon wanderers had now been long established in the country and were becoming civilized, they were themselves liable to be the victims of a kind of piracy similar to that in which they had previously indulged. From the end of the heptarchy to the Norman invasion the country was perpetually subject to the scourge of invaders by sea, who, though coming from various places in Northern Europe, received the general appellation of Danes. The original inhabitants of the island, who had been oppressed by the Saxons, gladly united with these hostile Northmen, who soon established themselves in the country in very formidable strength.

ALFRED.—At the time when Alfred the Great, the most  
 A.D. } renowned of the Saxon kings, succeeded to the throne,  
 871, } nearly the whole of England, except Wessex, had been  
 overrun and subdued by these invaders. He was the first  
 who really coped with the pirates, and met them on their own  
 peculiar element, fitting out a fleet to encounter their forces  
 at sea. Still the Danish power had become so formidable that  
 resistance was for a time in vain, and Alfred was reluctantly  
 obliged to leave his army, resign his rank, and live disguised  
 as a peasant in the swampy forests of Athelney. It is in re-  
 ference to his residence here that a well known anecdote is  
 told of him. The good woman of the house in which he was  
 sheltered, one day asked the seeming peasant to look to the  
 cakes baking on the gridiron while she went forth. The exile,  
 with his thoughts bent on more important matters, let the  
 cakes heat on till they were burned, much to the wrath of his  
 entertainer, who scolded him well for a lazy fellow, who would  
 be ready enough at the eating of them. He was watching his

opportunity to strike a blow for the Saxon kingdom, and frequented the camp of Guthrun, the Danish commander. Having satisfied himself that the moment was propitious, he summoned around him his old followers, collected an army, and gained an important victory near Chippenham. This was followed by other successes so rapidly as to prevent the Danes from drawing reinforcements from their own country, and he soon forced Guthrun to accept of such terms as he might offer. He was as moderate as he was wise, and did not attempt to drive the Danes out of the country. Guthrun agreed to become a Christian, and to him and his followers was assigned the eastern territory north of the Thames, long known by the name of Danelagh or Danelaw. In fact these Danes had now been almost completely incorporated with the Saxons, and were prepared to live in peaceable agreement with them. Other hordes, however, arrived from the continent,—pagans, like their predecessors, and equally savage, who were ready to plunder and oppress their more civilized kinsmen. In the year 893 especially, Hasting, a great sea king or pirate leader, came over with 300 vessels. But the internal resources of the kingdom had revived under Alfred's rule, and after a contest of some years the invaders were defeated and the land was free.

7. Alfred could now cultivate the arts of peace, in which he was no less justly renowned than for his warlike triumphs. He encouraged men of letters to frequent his court, and is said to have founded the university of Oxford. He was in his own person a very hard student. He wrote a commentary on the Consolation of Philosophy by Boetius, and translated some books from Latin into Anglo-Saxon. He kept up an intercourse with foreign princes, and especially with the illustrious Charlemagne. All was order and industry during the peaceful part of his reign : bridges were built, towns increased, and education spread among the people. Several valuable institutions arose among the Anglo-Saxons, to which Alfred contributed so far that he enjoys the reputation of having founded them. The country was divided into districts, called hundreds, each being supposed to contain a hundred families, and these again were divided by ten into tithings. The people of each district were made responsible for offences committed within its boundaries, and this induced them to be vigilant. From this is said to have arisen the jury system ; for if a man accused of an offence could get twelve of his neighbours, who had to make good the injury if the perpetrator could not be found, to stand up for his innocence, it became pretty clear that he was not the guilty party.

8. The monarchs who succeeded Alfred had to engage in many struggles with the Danes, and the realm was often disturbed by internal convulsions, from the law of succession not being clearly fixed. Edwy the Fair, who reigned about the middle of the tenth century, encountered a new enemy in the clergy, who, headed by St Dunstan, were asserting the domineering claims of the church of Rome, and endeavouring to subject the temporal to the spiritual authorities. The ecclesiastics ruled nearly the whole country during the reign of his successor, Edgar, who appears to have compounded with them to countenance their ambitious projects, if they did not interfere with his vices. Edward the Martyr was stabbed while drinking a cup of wine at the door of his stepmother, Elfrida, who thus cleared the way for her own son, Ethelred, to ascend the throne. The warlike capacity of Alfred had now completely deserted his descendants. Instead of fighting the Danes, who came over in greater numbers than ever, the king bribed them to leave the country, and thus only tempted them to return. A tax was laid on the people, called *Danegeld*, to meet the expense of bribing them. They were permitted in various ways to harass the peasantry, who at last took their protection into their own hands, and on a sudden attacked and massacred the Danes A. D. } with circumstances of great cruelty. King Sweyn of 1002. } Denmark, whose sister was one of the victims, came over with a larger force than ever, burning with the desire of vengeance. He ravaged the country, inflicting the utmost misery on its inhabitants, and could only be appeased by the payment of an immense sum, which was with difficulty raised from the exhausted resources of the people. The history of England is now for some time nothing but a narrative of the cruelties inflicted by these oppressors, with the equally savage retaliations perpetrated upon them by a people driven to desperation. During the reign of Ethelred neither age nor sex was respected, and churches were burned, with the fugitives who had taken refuge in them. At length Canute, the son of Sweyn, after many conflicts, entered into a treaty with Edmund A. D. } Ironside for the division of England between them, the 1016. } Dane taking the north and the Saxon the south.

9. CANUTE.—This arrangement had scarcely been adjusted when Edmund died. A sort of parliament, called the Witenagemote, or assembly of the wise men, were the councillors of the Saxon monarchs, a rude commencement of the representative system. Canute convoked them, and received their sanction to proclaim himself king of all England. The peaceful possession of such a throne, however, was not to be secured without

committing many crimes against the Saxon royal family; but few ambitious rulers in that age were checked by scruples. Canute, however, was by no means the same bloodthirsty savage with others of his race. His reign lasted for nearly twenty years, and it was one of comparative peace and prosperity. He did not treat the Saxons as a conquered people, but considered himself bound to rule all his subjects with justice, not allowing his Danish followers any invidious privileges. Indeed he got rid of a considerable number of the more turbulent of them, sending them back to their own country, or despatching them on distant enterprises. He was perhaps the most powerful sovereign of his age, for, possessed of Denmark and England, he conquered Sweden and Norway chiefly with English troops. Of all his dominions he preferred England as a place of residence,—a circumstance which shows that it was beyond his other territories in civilisation. He prudently cultivated the good wishes of the churchmen, feeling himself too powerful to be enslaved by them. He won the affection of the Saxon people, and was the idol of his courtiers. Their foolish flattery displeased his graver sense of the true responsibilities of a ruler; and an anecdote is often told of a method which he adopted to show them that even kings are mortal, and that they should be treated as such. It is said that he caused his chair or throne to be taken down to the edge of the sea, within high-water mark, as the tide was flowing, and with regal dignity forbade the waters to advance. When the sea rose and surrounded him, he bade his courtiers remember that no one was omnipotent but Him whom the elements obeyed.

10. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.—Canute, at his death in 1035, left three sons to inherit his large dominions; but disputes and animosities which broke out among them threw the whole inheritance into an unsettled state. Two of the sons, Harold and Hardicanute, successively reigned in England; but the latter having disgusted the people by his oppressions, the way was opened, at his death in 1042, for the restoration of the Saxon race, in the person of Edward, the son of Ethelred, whose widow, Emma, had married Canute.

Edward, called the Confessor, was a man as remarkable in his own way as Canute, but of a different character. Gentle and amiable, he was a lover of justice, and deeply imbued with religion. Under him the English people made great advances in civilisation. He had the several laws and customs which had grown up in the country carefully arranged and digested, and it was long the custom of the common people to refer to the good old laws of Edward the Confessor. He lived eco-

nomically, without pomp or ostentation, and was able to keep up a full treasury without oppressing the people. There was one peculiarity, however, which created considerable turbulence during his reign. He had lived long among the Normans, and had acquired the manners of that elegant and pleasing race. He thus felt the companionship and the ways of the Saxons disagreeable, and he brought with him a large train of Norman adventurers, who filled the chief appointments, civil, ecclesiastical, and military. Earl Godwin, who had risen to great power, and represented the native or Saxon party, had been a main instrument in his restoration, and Edward advanced him and his sons to high dignity, and married his daughter. But Godwin, as the champion of the Saxon race, was jealous of the Norman strangers, who monopolized so much of the favour of the court, and carried his opposition so far as to levy war for their dismissal. The cause was one which a large portion of the nation took up, and it threatened to lead to a protracted civil war, in which the aid of William, duke of Normandy, would be called in. Godwin, after many vicissitudes, was successful in restoring, at least for a time, the Saxon supremacy, when he suddenly died. He left his vast estates and influence to his son Harold, who became a favourite with the king, and obtained still greater power than his father.

11. BATTLE OF HASTINGS.—At the death of Edward the Confessor, in 1066, without children, there were two claimants of the crown, each asserting that he had been designed by the late king to succeed him. These were Harold, and William duke of Normandy. Harold being on the spot assumed the government, and the country so far acknowledged him, that he might have remained apparently in undisturbed possession, had he not been assailed by his rival from without. Duke William resolved to fight for the dominion of England, and he represented to his followers in such glowing colours the magnificent prizes to be gained in the adventure, that a brilliant army, collected not only in Normandy, but in the neighbouring provinces of France and Flanders, flocked to his banner. He felt that the Normans were scarcely to be considered strangers on the English soil. He had visited the court of Edward the Confessor, and remarked that most of the great officers were selected from his own subjects, and that even the ships of the King of England were commanded by Norman sailors. He brought together sixty thousand troops, the flower of the chivalry of the age. But it was not so wonderful that such an army should be assembled, as that he should be able to bring

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it across the Channel. This was accomplished in safety, and on the 28th of September 1066, he landed on the coast of Sussex. It is said that on coming ashore he stumbled,—an omen that might have been discouraging, had he not with great presence of mind spread his hands on the ground, and said he thus took possession. Harold was in the meantime attacked from another quarter, his brother Tostig having invaded the northern shores with a fleet from Norway. Harold had met and routed him at Stamford Bridge, when his fatigued soldiers were called to meet a more formidable foe. It was on the 14th of October 1066 that the two armies encountered in the memorable battle of Hastings. The English force, though small and ill conducted, consisted of men not accustomed to be easily conquered, and the battle raged during a long day, appearing at times to be so much against the invaders, that they would be irretrievably defeated. But they had among them a large number of mail-clad warriors, who, in the days when there were no firearms, were fortified against the usual missiles, unless they happened to hit the exposed parts of the body. At length an arrow from a Norman bow pierced Harold to the brain, and victory declared for William, thenceforth named the Conqueror.

#### EXERCISES.

1. When did Cæsar land in Britain? Give some account of the inhabitants at that time. Mention some remarkable remains of their labours.

2. What sort of reception did the Romans meet with? Who was Cæsar's chief opponent? What was remarkable about Caractacus?

3. Who made the principal acquisitions in Britain? Where was a rampart built? Who was Carausius? Who was Maximus? What had the comparatively civilized people to complain of? What effect did the Romans produce on the country and its inhabitants?

4. What parties was the country divided into? Who attacked the Britons from the north? From whom did they look for aid? How did the northern pirates carry on their depredations? In what manner did they plant themselves in England? What became of the original inhabitants?

5. What name did the country receive under the Saxons? What were the kingdoms of the heptarchy? What effect had the Saxons on religion? What words are derived from their deities? How were they converted? In what manner did the heptarchy become one kingdom?

6. From whom were the Saxons liable to attacks? What was the state of the country when Alfred became king? Give an account of his exile. How did he recover the kingdom? Who was Hasting?

7. Give an account of the qualifications of Alfred the Great. What did he enjoy the reputation of having created? What were hundreds and tithings? How is the jury system said to have arisen?

8. Who was St Dunstan? What was the character of Edgar? How

were the Danes dealt with? How did they retaliate? What arrangement was made with Canute?

9. What was the Witenagemote? How did it act towards Canute? What was the character of his reign? What dominions did he possess? Mention a story told of him.

10. How was the Saxon race restored? Who was Edward the Confessor? What was the character of his reign? What race of foreigners did he bring into the country? What efforts were made against them?

11. What claimants were there to the crown on the death of Edward? How did Duke William proceed? What had prepared the way for him? Give an account of the battle of Hastings.

## CHAPTER II.

### FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE DEATH OF HENRY III., A. D. 1066—1272.

William the Conqueror—Forest-Laws—The Feudal System—William Rufus—Henry I.—Stephen—Henry II.—Becket—Invasion of Ireland—Richard I.—John—Magna Charta—Henry III.—The Parliament.

1. WILLIAM I.—The Normans, who by the battle of Hastings established themselves in England, were the descendants of those northern pirates who, about a century and a half before, had ravaged France, and obtained a province of the country as the best means of making them the friends instead of the enemies of its rulers. Thus, though they had added the polish of French manners to their native energy, they were of that same northern race of which tribe after tribe had flocked to England,—Jutes, Angles, Danes, and Norwegians. The first effective blow had been struck at Hastings, and any opposition that the conqueror met with in approaching London was comparatively trifling. The city was for some time defended against him, but it afterwards yielded. The most effectual resistance, indeed, which he encountered, was after he appeared to be master of the kingdom, and was conducted by bodies of men in the fens of Lincolnshire and other inaccessible places. His mere succession to the throne of England, though William was a foreigner, might have mattered little to the people if he had succeeded peacefully. But he had to gain it by conquest, and this gave a right to his followers, who had fought for him, to be rewarded by the spoils of the country he had won. It was this necessity, productive of the greatest



mortifications and hardships to the Saxon people, that excited a protracted resistance after it was too late. There were sixty thousand estates to be provided for the conqueror's followers, for this was the number of his army, and the relatives of those who were slain would have as good a right to participate in the spoil as the survivors. Some of the leading men obtained extensive tracts of country, which their descendants, in many instances, still possess. Even the Saxon clergy were dispossessed, and their benefices, if not seized by the military adventurers, were transferred to Norman priests. King William was fond of hunting, and with a true tyrannical spirit, spared nothing that would contribute to his pleasure. He laid out a large tract of land in Hampshire as a hunting-field, which was named the New Forest. He not only depopulated the district to adapt it to his sport, but, to preserve the game for his sole amusement, he enacted those sanguinary forest-laws, which were the source of the game-laws of modern times.

2. The introduction of the feudal system into Britain is generally referred to the period of the Conquest. It had in some small measure been adopted by the Anglo-Saxons, but it was practised by William and his followers in a full and complete state. It was a system, indeed, precisely adapted to the arrangement of lands obtained by conquest. The monarch himself was lord of all, and whatever lands or dignities the chief nobility possessed, they acknowledged that they received them from him, and that they were bound to serve him in war, and assist him in council, so long as they were permitted to retain them. These great lords, on their own part, would have vassals under them, holding lands in the same way, doing homage to them, and performing military service. William, indeed, showed some jealousy of the power thus enjoyed by his followers. He was determined to be the supreme ruler, and to prevent any of these haughty leaders from establishing an independent command on his estate. That he might know exactly what each of them possessed, and in what shape, he caused inquiry to be made by a commission throughout the kingdom. The result was made up in an extensive record called Domesday Book, which is perhaps the most remarkable register of landed property ever possessed by a nation at so early a period in its civilisation. William died from the consequences of an accident on horseback, in Normandy, on the 19th September 1087.

3. WILLIAM II.—The Conqueror left two sons, Robert and William, of whom the former was the elder. William, however, being on the spot, proposed himself as king, and was

generally received by the nobles and the people. His elder brother, however, laid claim to the succession, as hereditary heir, both in England and Normandy, and he was supported by the Norman barons. William, called Rufus or the Red, appealed to the Saxon population, whose support he secured by concessions and promises, and especially by encouraging their old priesthood and restoring them to their benefices. William was crowned by their own favourite prelate, Lanfranc, in the cathedral of Winchester. Thus early were the Saxons gradually regaining their influence. William assembled a formidable army, but he made an arrangement with his brother for being left in undisturbed possession of the throne. He was a selfish tyrannical man, and his promises to the Saxons were but poorly kept. In the middle of a career of A.D. } profligacy he was cut off, while hunting in the New 1100. } Forest, by an arrow shot by Sir Walter Tyrrel, an accident which the people counted a judgment for the spoliation in which the forest originated: they coupled it with the circumstance that his brother Richard had been killed by a stag in the same place.

4. HENRY I.—William was succeeded by his younger brother Henry I., called Beauclerc. Robert, who was thus again passed over, had still his partisans among the Normans; but after some dispute it was arranged that Henry should hold England, and Robert Normandy. The ambitious English monarch, however, did not keep the treaty. Still jealous of their party, he deprived many of his Norman followers of their lands; and invading Normandy, he defeated his brother at the battle of Tenchebray, seized his dukedom, and committed him to a dungeon, where, deprived of sight, he lingered for thirty years. He cultivated the Saxon party, and strengthened himself in their esteem by a marriage with Maud, the daughter of King Malcolm of Scotland, whose wife was a princess of the Saxon line. Henry had been participating in the gaieties of his son William's marriage at Anjou, and both were sailing home in separate vessels, when that of the prince foundered, and the heir of the crown, with the chief of the Norman nobility, were lost. This cast a gloom over the latter days of Henry's life. He died in the year 1135.

5. HENRY II.—Henry's daughter Maud, countess of Anjou, would have been his heiress by the modern hereditary system, but the barons protested that they would not be ruled by a female, and Stephen, the previous king's nephew, ascended the throne. Maud or Matilda was considered from her mother to have a claim on the supporters of the Saxon line, and

A.D. } David of Scotland invaded England in her behalf, and  
 1138. } was defeated after an obstinate engagement, called the  
 Battle of the Standard. This was followed by a desolating  
 civil war, one of the most oppressive to the common people of  
 any that had occurred in England. Of their sufferings a con-  
 temporary Saxon chronicler has left a very graphic description.  
 "In this king's time all was dissension, and evil, and rapine.  
 Against him soon rose rich men. They had sworn oaths, but  
 no truth maintained. They built castles which they held out  
 against him. They filled the castles with devils and evil men.  
 They seized those whom they supposed to have any goods,  
 men and labouring women, and threw them into prison for  
 their gold and silver, and inflicted on them unutterable tor-  
 tures. Some they hanged up by the feet, and smoked with  
 foul smoke; some by the thumbs or by the beard, and hung  
 weights to their feet. They put them into dungeons with  
 adders, snakes, and toads. Many thousands they wore out  
 with hunger. They burned all the towns; thou mightest go  
 a day's journey, and not find a man sitting in a town, or an  
 acre of land tilled. Wretched men starved of hunger: to till  
 the ground was to plough the sea. This lasted the nineteen  
 years while Stephen was king, and it grew continually worse  
 and worse."—Eustace the king's son having died, it was at  
 last arranged that Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda,  
 should succeed to the crown on Stephen's decease. This  
 event took place in the following year (25th Oct. 1154).

6. HENRY II.—BECKET.—The reign of Henry II. is chiefly  
 conspicuous for the conflict between the civil and ecclesias-  
 tical powers. The church had from time to time obtained  
 privileges of exemption from the authority of the ordinary  
 courts of justice, which it naturally wished to extend. The  
 body was popular with the Saxons, who looked on these  
 very privileges and immunities as their best protection from  
 the tyranny of the Norman kings and aristocracy. Many  
 of the clergy themselves, and among them their great leader,  
 Thomas à Becket, were of Saxon descent. This remarkable  
 man possessed varied talents, and before being made Arch-  
 bishop of Canterbury he was an accomplished courtier. After  
 that event, however, he became austere and rigid; he lived  
 and dressed plainly, and seeming to want nothing for him-  
 self demanded all for the church. As it was maintained that  
 priests, even when accused of the highest crimes, could not  
 be tried by the civil magistrates, a council or parliament was  
 assembled at Clarendon in 1164, where certain constitutions  
 were passed subjecting the clergy to the authority of the ordi-

nary tribunals when charged with crimes. This led to a sharp contest between the king and the archbishop; and at last Becket was compelled to flee to the continent. Returning thence in triumph by the united aid of the pope, the clergy, and the people, he found part of the wealth of his see confiscated. Its restoration being delayed, Becket issued a sentence of excommunication against all who were concerned in the spoliation. The king having dropped some bitter remarks on Becket, four of his unscrupulous followers murdered the prelate at the altar of his cathedral. He was immediately revered and canonized as a saint and martyr, and Henry had to do penance and make many humiliating concessions to propitiate the see of Rome and the Saxon people. Henry was more fortunate in his military conflicts. In 1157, he overran Wales, and annexed a portion of it to his dominions. The several princes who ruled Ireland having been long at variance with each other, in an evil hour Dermot king of Leinster sought aid in England. A body of adventurers, headed by Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, and Fitzgerald, complied with his wishes, and soon gained a sort of regal authority in the island. Henry was not a monarch to let his vassals create an independent empire so close to his own; and compelling them to resign their acquisitions into his hands, he passed over with an armament  
 A.D. }  
 1172. } and took possession of the country. While he thus enlarged his dominions at home, Henry made many foreign acquisitions. He died on the 11th of July 1189.

7. RICHARD I.—The reign of the next monarch, Richard, called *Cœur-de-Lion* or the *Lion-hearted*, was not of much importance in English history. He was imbued with the romantic propensities of the age, wrote poetry as a troubadour, and spent the greater part of his days in the crusades to the Holy Land, where he left behind him a high reputation for valour and personal strength. His end was characteristic. When besieging the castle of a rebel noble in Limoges, he was shot by an archer, who admitted that he was actuated by revenge for the death of his father and brother. Richard, although  
 A.D. }  
 1190. } dying of the wound, hanged the rest of the garrison, but spared the archer.

8. JOHN.—King John had early shown a treacherous disposition by attempting to get possession of the throne in the absence of his brother Richard. As he was the fourth son of Henry II. his nephew Arthur, according to the hereditary principle, was the heir of the crown, but John had the assent of parliament to his pretensions. Desiring, however, to possess the continental dominions of his nephew, he got the young

prince seized and confined in a castle, where he was soon afterwards murdered. Shakspeare thus describes the sensation produced by the news of this event—

—Old men, and beldams in the streets,  
Do prophesy upon it dangerously:  
Young Arthur's death is common in their mouths:  
And when they talk of him, they shake their heads,  
And whisper one another in the ear;  
And he that speaks doth gripe the hearer's wrist,  
Whilst he that hears makes fearful action,  
With wrinkled brows, with nods, with rolling eyes.

Arthur, however, had been living in Brittany, and the chief excitement from the event was produced there and in the other French dominions to which he was the heir. The King of France very naturally took advantage of this, calling John, who as the next heir to these territories was his vassal, to come and answer for the deed, or submit to the feudal forfeiture of his continental possessions. In the meanwhile John, who had no caution in his wickedness, had renewed the ecclesiastical quarrel. He and the pope had a contest on the appointment of the Archbishop of Canterbury. As John used physical violence, Pope Innocent had recourse to his own weapons, and laid the kingdom under interdict, which was equivalent to excommunicating its inhabitants. From that moment all the churches were shut, and the sacred rites of religion forbidden, with the exception of baptism, confession, absolution, and extreme unction. The court of Rome even went farther, and professed to deprive the king of his dominions, and transfer them to Philip Augustus king of France, who was preparing to invade the country with a large army. John, however, abjectly submitted, and, much to the disappointment of the French monarch, the pope recalled his denunciations.

9. **MAGNA CHARTA.**—In the meantime, the barons and leading men among the people, feeling that they were subject to a capricious tyranny, resolved to make the king bind himself to an acknowledgment of some fixed code of laws for civil liberty,—chiefly the old laws of the Anglo-Saxon times. The 15th June } document in which they were drawn up was called  
1215. } Magna Charta, or the great charter. It made provision against feudal exactions, appointed that justice should be administered according to law and not by the capricious will of the king or his advisers, secured trial by jury, and prohibited all punishments without a previous trial and conviction. In little more than a year after he had thus unwill-

19th Oct. } ingly done a good action, John died while on his way  
 1216. } to meet a French force which had invaded the  
 country.

10. HENRY III.—John left behind him a son, a child of ten years old, called Henry of Winchester. A large portion of the south of England, including the capital, was in the hands of Prince Louis the son of the French king. It might have seemed of small importance to the Norman barons who was to be their master, but the very reason that induced them to oppose their own king was the more distinct constitutional freedom to which they aspired. This made them still more inimical to a king of France, and Louis, losing his acquisitions one after another, soon left the country. This reign, though it possesses little interest from the character of its monarch, who was false and feeble, is important in the progress of the parliamentary system. In 1225, money being wanted to defend the French territories of the crown, the barons were assembled in a parliament to grant it; but they would give none unless the great charter was confirmed. The confirmation of the charter became a favourite demand in that reign, and was the more particularly insisted on, as the king surrounded himself by offensive foreign favourites, who had very imperfect notions of constitutional liberty. Having exasperated the people by waste, oppression, and, what was always unpopular, defeat abroad, a parliament assembled in 1253, resolved to use their power as their predecessors had done with King John, and to exact a solemn confirmation of the charter. But five years afterwards they found it necessary to have more substantial securities, and a committee of barons was appointed to enforce the laws and preserve the liberties of the country. At the head of this body was Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, called the parent of the representative system. The king having endeavoured to break through the control of the barons, was beaten in a civil war; and when a parliament was then called, to strengthen his hands, Montfort caused to be summoned not only the nobles who had been used to attend, but representatives from the smaller freeholders and the towns. Such was the beginning of the famous representative system. The monarch who thus, like his father, had unintentionally helped to improve the constitution, died on 16th November 1272, after the unusually long reign of fifty-six years.

#### EXERCISES.

1. What was the origin of the Normans? What other races which inhabited England were they allied to? How did the Conqueror reward his followers? What was the New Forest?

2. Give an account of the feudal system, and the manner in which the Normans introduced it. What method did the Conqueror adopt to prevent his followers from establishing independent governments? When did William die?

3. How was the succession to the throne arranged? What showed that the Saxons were beginning to recover their influence? How did William the Second die?

4. Who succeeded William II.? What arrangement was made regarding the succession to England and Normandy? How did Henry act towards his brother? How did Henry obtain the support of the Saxon party?

5. Who would have succeeded Henry I. by the modern hereditary system? Who did succeed to him? What made King David invade England? What was the state of the country? Who became Stephen's heir?

6. What is the reign of Henry II. chiefly conspicuous for? Give an account of Thomas à Becket. What was the object of the constitutions of Clarendon? What was Becket's fate? What were its consequences? How was Ireland annexed to England?

7. Who was the next king? What characteristic name did he get? How did he occupy himself? What was peculiar in the circumstances of his death?

8. Who succeeded to Richard? What character did King John show? What crime was he suspected of? What were the consequences of it? Describe the dispute with the pope.

9. What resolution did the leading men of the country adopt? What was the name of the obligation which they made the king undertake? Give an account of Magna Charta.

10. Who was John's son? How was he more acceptable to the people than a French monarch? What is important in this reign? How did the parliament of 1253 act? What committee was appointed? How and by whom was the representative system appointed?

### CHAPTER III.

#### FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD I. TO THE DEATH OF RICHARD II., A. D. 1272—1399.

Edward I.—Conquest of Wales—Scottish Wars—Edward II.—Bannockburn—Edward III.—French Wars—Crecy and Poitiers—The Black Death—Richard II.—Wat Tyler—Independence of the House of Commons—Insurrection of the Duke of Gloucester—Resistance to Papal Encroachments—Rebellion of Lancaster.

1. EDWARD I.—Henry's son and successor, Edward I., or Edward Longshanks, as he was termed, from a personal peculiarity, was the ablest sovereign who had mounted the throne since the days of the Conqueror. He held the reins of power with a firm hand, improving the method of conducting

business, and consolidating the laws. He made them so far a system that they were digested into books which are still used. But his chief glories were reaped in the field of battle. The distracted state of France might have excited his ambition for conquest; but though he defended his own possessions there effectually, he preferred a consolidated empire, covering the whole of Britain, to distant acquisitions. He invaded Wales; and after a determined opposition, which he retaliated by a sanguinary persecution, he attached the remaining refuge of the original Britons to his dominions.

There being several competitors for the crown of Scotland, he expected and soon found an opportunity of overrunning that country. The Scottish kings had held estates in England, for which they did homage. The English monarch was often anxious to extend this, so as to involve a homage for the whole kingdom, and an admission that the Scottish sovereign was his vassal. As Edward was referred to for a decision on the succession, he awarded it to John Baliol, on the condition of that claimant becoming his vassal, and doing homage for Scotland. He soon made demands with which even Baliol would not comply, and then found an excuse for invasion. Notwithstanding a protracted resistance, chiefly conducted by the popular heroes Wallace and Douglas, Edward, by his formidable armies, was able to subdue every place of strength, and hold the country for a time in subjection. Under Bruce, however, a descendant of one of the competitors for the crown, the old spirit awoke, and an army, small but enthusiastic, rallied round him. Edward, infuriated, determined to crush the rising in person, though labouring under mortal sickness. He died, however, on his way to the north, at Burgh-on-the-Sands, 7th July } evincing his hatred to the Scots in his latest breath,  
1307. } by desiring that the flesh should be boiled off his bones and his skeleton carried before the army.

2. EDWARD II.—The great but too ambitious Edward I. had a successor of a very different character in his son, one of the weakest men who ever filled the English throne. His father's death was a signal advantage to Scotland. Bruce advanced from one success to another, until Stirling Castle was almost the only stronghold remaining in the hands of the English. Edward went in person to Scotland in the year 1310, but he made so little impression, that immediately afterwards the Scots invaded and ravaged the northern districts of England. At length Edward determined to strike a decisive blow, if the collecting of a gigantic and magnificently appointed army could do so. The force with which he crossed the



border is said to have amounted to the enormous number of sixty thousand infantry and forty thousand cavalry. The Scots army, which was large for the country and its population at that time, is said not to have exceeded 40,000 men. But they were fighting for national independence, and had a brave and judicious commander. On the 23d of June 1314, Bruce gained the great battle of Bannockburn, by which the English power in Scotland was thoroughly annihilated; and so many of the nobility were slaughtered and taken captive that there was a general mourning throughout England. The king himself fled sixty miles for safety. The remainder of Edward's reign is of little importance to the public history of England. It consists chiefly of the intrigues of haughty unscrupulous favourites, who played upon the king's indolent easy nature, until at last they became too offensive to be endured, and fell sacrifices to their false elevation. Edward was at last deposed; and while his son was crowned, he was A. D. } committed to Berkeley Castle, where he was soon after 1327. } found dead, having, according to general belief, been murdered.

3. EDWARD III.—The new monarch seemed to have inherited the ambition and warlike spirit of his grandfather. In the earlier years of his reign he renewed the war in Scotland with much vigour. The descendant of Bruce was for a time driven from his throne, and Edward Baliol, who agreed to do homage to the English king, was crowned. But a war with enemies so indomitable, to gain a territory so poor, was an unprofitable business, and Edward was tempted by more brilliant opportunities in another direction. In the year 1328 died Charles the Fair, king of France. He left daughters, but no female had ruled in France since the fifth or sixth century. This was not an unnatural exclusion in warlike times, and we have found already something like it in England when Henry I. died. No regular order of succession had been established, and it became a question whether the crown was descendible only through male heirs, or whether it could be claimed by the nearest male descendant on the female side. The prevailing opinion was, that what was called the Salic law excluded female succession, and Philip VI., a distant relation, ascended the throne of France. King Edward's mother was a sister of the deceased king, and of course she would have been doubly disqualified to succeed, because if a female could hold the crown, the daughters would have the preference. Edward, however, maintained, that though a female could not succeed, the male representative of a female could, and so he claimed the crown

of France, as being entitled to it through his mother. He thus at least made a plausible excuse for an invasion, and he long watched his opportunity. Such an opportunity occurred in a question as to the succession to Brittany; and the King of England having been appealed to in the matter, he sent over an army. But the time for decided action had not yet come.

4. CRECY.—A baron of Normandy, called Godfrey of Harcourt, subsequently took refuge at the court of England in disgrace, and persuaded Edward that no better means of attacking France could be found than through Normandy, where the people had grown wealthy, happy, and unwarlike, from being seldom disturbed. Edward used every effort to obtain money, and carried over with him a pretty considerable army. He landed at Nevray, whence he marched up the Seine, and thence passed to the Somme, where, in an open wood near the small town of Crecy, he resolved to give battle to the large force of the King of France. The feudal system was then very oppressively maintained in France, and the poorest classes were so miserable that they cared not who ruled them, and fought rather from subserviency than from military spirit. Thus, though Edward had not thirty thousand men, and those of the French army were beyond sixty thousand, there was no inequality; for the English bowmen and billmen, who fought with weapons like bill-hooks, were nearly as valuable as the knights and other higher men-at-arms of the French. On the 26th of August 1346, the English, meeting steadily the impetuous but irregular attack of the larger host, gained a signal victory, the flower of French rank and chivalry being found dead on the field. Edward marched to the town of Calais, which he subdued after a long resistance. He expelled the French inhabitants, and it was for several centuries an English town. As it was separated from the adjoining country by wide marshes, it could indeed be approached more easily from England than from France. An attempt was afterwards made to establish a treaty by which the territories of the kings of England within France were to be enlarged, but they were to give up any claim to the crown of that kingdom. A truce was entered into; but in the feuds of the nobles, under the weak capricious rule of the French king, it was frequently broken.

5. POITIERS.—Edward, who only desired an opportunity for invasion, sent over a small but well-selected force under the command of his gallant son, called Edward the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour. A mighty armament was collected to oppose him. It consisted of 50,000 men,

while his own was only about a fifth of that strength. He prudently wished to avoid a battle; but the terms offered to him were so humiliating, that he was resolved to stand his ground, and accordingly took up a strong position at a place  
 16th Sept. } called Poitiers. The French, hastening to crush  
 1656. } the little band, advanced in impetuous disorder. They were received by a steady flight of arrows from the English bowmen, and the heavy mounted men-at-arms charging, the whole mass was thrown into inextricable confusion. The King of France and a multitude of princes and nobles became the captives of the Black Prince. By the  
 A.D. } treaty of Bretigny the war was brought for a time to  
 1360. } an end, a large portion of the French territory being ceded to the King of England. Great anarchy and misery, however, prevailed in France; and it appeared that the country was only saved from permanent annexation to England by the death of the king and his son the Black Prince nearly at the same time.

As Edward III. required large supplies for his foreign wars, he gave his parliament frequent opportunities of demanding redresses of grievances and extensions of privileges. Oppressive laws were modified, and the acts especially which were to be counted treason and subjected to the severe punishment of that offence, were satisfactorily defined. Though the country was in general prosperous, yet in 1348 it was exposed, along with the rest of the continent, to a frightful plague which had travelled from China, desolating almost every kingdom in Europe. It was called, from some of its peculiar symptoms, "The Black Death." Considerable encroachments had been attempted in this reign by the pope, in asserting and exercising the right of disposing of ecclesiastical benefices, which were sternly repelled, and the exercise of the professed powers within England made illegal. Other symptoms of opposition to the growing usurpation of Rome began even already to appear. Wickliffe, celebrated for the boldness with which he denounced several features of the Roman-catholic system, not only passed his days in safety, but was popular and courted by men in authority.

The victories of Edward III. had left few substantial fruits; and indeed he was in the midst of reverses and misfortunes, the greatest of which was the death of his gallant son, when he died on 21st June 1377.

6. RICHARD II., the son of the heroic Black Prince, as-  
 A.D. } cended the throne at the age of eleven. The English  
 1377. } constitution made important progress during his reign.

During his minority the parliament was called on to replenish the exchequer, exhausted by the brilliant wars with France. The necessities of the sovereign were always an opportunity for parliament to exercise its strength. The Commons on this occasion demanded an account of the monies already advanced. After an obstinate discussion with the ministers of the crown, the accounts were at last presented. But the sturdy Commons, instead of being so gratified by this concession as courteously to approve of all that had been done, examined the expenditure very critically. After considerable reluctance they granted a poll-tax,—a tax on each head, or in other words on each grown-up person. Such an enactment, necessarily inflicting great injustice on the poor, was a serious national calamity, and the people were disposed to resist it.

The tax-gatherers coming to levy the impost in the house of Wat the Tyler (or Tiler), included his daughter among those liable to it, while Tyler maintained that she was under the age mentioned in the statute. The altercation which ensued led to one of the rude officers laying hands on the damsel in an impertinent and indecorous manner; and her father's wrath being roused, he beat the man's brains out with his hammer. As the news of this act spread from cottage to cottage, the people said that Tyler had done right,—that the burdens and insults heaped on the poor were intolerable, and that a day of retribution must come. The flame spread through Kent, Hertford, Surrey, Sussex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Lincoln. At length Tyler was, if we may believe the chronicles, at the head of a hundred thousand men, close to London. The danger of the capital, then becoming an affluent town, was imminent. In fact, many acts of plunder and slaughter were committed in the streets, and the king did not find himself safe in the Tower. In these circumstances a sort of treaty was made with the insurgents. Their claims were—the abolition of the system of villanage, by which, instead of being entitled to work when and for as much wages as they pleased, they were bound to a particular estate like slaves, and there compelled to give their labour to its lord; that they might work for wages and pay rent instead of feudal services for land; and that the market-dues, which prevented them from buying and selling fairly, should be abolished.

Charters were granted by the king, professing to comply with the demands that had been made. But it unfortunately happened that this negotiation was only carried on with one body of the insurgents. There was another which had seized on the Tower, and was plundering and slaying in the city. Near

the present Smithfield-market, the young king and his retinue met them. He desired the rebel leader to come and speak with him, and Tyler did so in confident security. It has been said that he had given his followers instructions, on observing a signal from him, to rush in, seize the king, and slay all his attendants; but this is questioned. Sir William Walworth, the lord mayor of London, who appears to have been subject to strong excitement, could not endure to see him freely arguing with the king, so he drew his sword and struck Tyler down. To their shame, some of the other attendants stabbed him to death. The position of the king and his courtiers was now extremely perilous; but it was the good fortune of Richard, though he was then but a youth of sixteen, to throw out a word or two, which, coming from so high a source, appeased the angry multitude. He said, "What! are you enraged for the loss of your leader? Come, I will be your leader." And such indications of sympathy from a king immediately made them forget their slaughtered captain. They dispersed gradually towards their homes, and while they did so, a large army of the feudal nobility gathered round London. A parliament was held, in which the extorted charters were recalled, and the people were again reduced to vassalage. More than 1500 of the rebels perished by the hands of the common hangman. At the same time, however, this parliament took a rational view of the state of the country, and attributed the outbreak to oppressions which they recommended to be discontinued.

7. The youthful king was capricious and inconsistent, caring more for the wishes of favourites than for the interest of his people. A war with Scotland, in which he was successful in ravaging a considerable portion of the country, for some time withdrew attention from his unpopular failings. There were certain persons, however, whose object it was not to lose sight of them—his ambitious relatives, of whom the Duke of Gloucester became the most powerful. He was able to get a permanent council established, at the head of which he was placed, and he thus presided over a body which in a great measure superseded the functions of the monarch. The king submitted to the judges the question whether this council was legal. They decided that it was not, and that its abettors, with Gloucester at their head, were guilty of high treason. Gloucester and his followers immediately flew to arms—they collected an army of 40,000 men, put the king at defiance, and in the end defeated any force he could bring against them. A parliament was now held, which assuming judicial power—a

not unfrequent practice of the old parliaments—condemned the king's councillors to punishment, and caused two of them to be executed.

An important contest with the pope was concluded in this reign. Among his other encroachments he attempted to dispose of English benefices, appointing to them foreigners who would be more subservient to Rome than the native clergy. A statute limited the capacity of foreigners to hold ecclesiastical benefices in England, and at the same time prohibited, under penalties, the issuing of the excommunications and other ecclesiastical denunciations by which the church of Rome enforced its authority.

Though the constitution thus made considerable progress during the reign of Richard II., yet it was not owing to any valuable personal qualities of the monarch. Among many arbitrary and cruel acts of his reign, none was productive of so much serious hostility as the secret removal of the Duke of Gloucester to Calais, where it was the common belief, whether well founded or not, that he was murdered. Other acts were performed,—such as forced loans, compulsory interference with the judges in administering justice, and the like,—which were very distasteful to the English people. While Richard was absent on an expedition in Ireland, the ambitious son of his good-natured uncle, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, raised a force against him. It gradually increased, and before the king could return to England, had become too great to be resisted by him with any prospect of success. He resigned the crown in favour of his cousin, and was secretly removed from one stronghold to another. A mystery hangs over his fate. Some writers state that he was violently put to death, and others that he was allowed to starve.

#### EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Henry III.? What were the chief qualifications of Edward I.? What was the nature of his ambitious projects? Explain the manner in which he got Baliol to acknowledge him as superior of Scotland. What did he make an excuse for invading Scotland? Who chiefly resisted him? How did he show his hatred of Scotland?

2. What was the character of Edward II.? Give an account of the battle of Bannockburn. What were its effects? What was the character of the subsequent years of Edward's reign? What was his fate?

3. What was the character of Edward III. when compared with his father and grandfather? What were the results of his contest with Scotland? Give an account of the nature of his claims on the French crown, and show how it was connected with the Salic law.

4. In what manner was Edward persuaded to invade France? How

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did he act on the advice he received? How was the battle of Crecy gained? What was the fate of the town of Calais?

5. Who was the Black Prince? What victory did he gain? What was the fate of France? Describe the effect of Edward's foreign wars on the progress of the constitution. What plague ravaged the country? Who was Wickliffe? When did Edward III. die?

6. Who succeeded Edward III.? How did the Commons proceed at the commencement of Richard the Second's reign? What was the nature of the poll-tax granted by the Commons? What caused the outbreak headed by Wat Tyler? Give an account of the progress of the insurrection. Give an account of the death of Tyler, and the suppression of the insurrection. How did the parliament act?

7. What character did Richard II. exhibit? How did the Duke of Gloucester obtain his power? How did he and his followers act towards the king? What power did parliament assume? What important ecclesiastical contest occurred in the reign of Richard II.? What unpopular acts were committed? What is known of the fate of Richard?

## CHAPTER IV.

### THE YORK AND LANCASTER DYNASTIES, A. D. 1399—1485.

Dynasty of Lancaster—Henry IV.—Percy Rebellion—Battle of Shrewsbury—Rise of the Constitution—Persecution of the Lollards—Henry V.—Sir John Oldcastle—Agincourt—Henry VI.—Duke of Gloucester and Eleanor Cobham—Maid of Orleans—English expelled from France—War of the Roses—Jack Cade's Insurrection—Battle of St Albans—Warwick, the King-maker—Battles of Wakefield and Mortimer's Cross—Dynasty of York—Edward IV.—Lady Gray—Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury—Murder of the Duke of Clarence—Edward V.—Richard III.—Battle of Bosworth.

1. HENRY THE FOURTH has been generally called by historians a usurper; but in truth the succession to the crown was not so distinctly settled in those days as it is in ours, and being, like Richard the Second, a grandson of Edward the Third, he had partisans who thought his right to the throne was quite as good as his cousin's, and that he would make a better king. His accession, however, forms an important epoch in English history. His father, the brother of the Black Prince, having been Duke of Lancaster, he was counted the first of the Lancastrian princes in the wars of the Roses which so long desolated England. According to the modern notions of hereditary descent, had Richard II. been dead, beyond any doubt the person who would have been his heir was Edmund, the son of Philippa, and the granddaughter of Edward III. by his

second son, the Duke of Clarence. The position of these parties, which is of considerable importance in English history, will be best understood by remembering that Edward the Third had three sons—the Black Prince, who was Richard the Second's father; Lionel, duke of Clarence, whose grandson was the heir of Richard II. on his having no children of his own; and John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the father of Henry IV., and the founder of the Lancastrian line.

2. The commencement of Henry's reign was turbulent, for the barons who had helped him to ascend the throne had a feeling that he was under obligations to them, which would prevent him from exercising his royal prerogative too sternly. Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland, from having been his warm friend and champion, became his most dangerous enemy, charging him with having deceived his supporters, whose object it was, not to give him the crown, but only to restore him to his estates and honours. By allying himself with his neighbours of Scotland, and Owen Glendower, the revolted prince of the Welsh, he raised a large army with which he fought some successful battles. But at length Henry with a great force  
 21st July } met the insurgents at Shrewsbury, and gained a signal  
 1403. } victory, which appeared to establish and confirm the Lancastrian dynasty. The battle of Shrewsbury was remarkable in history from the ferocity with which it was fought, and the number of men of high rank who were killed. Among the insurgents young Percy, commonly called Hotspur, fought side by side with his old enemies of Scotland. Douglas was ambitious of single combat with the king; but there were several other knights in his dress, and Shakspeare represents the Scottish borderer attacking them one after the other, and crying out, "Another king—they grow like hydra's heads." The Percys, however, whose vast estates in the north made them as powerful as some of the smaller continental monarchs, again broke out, and they were not reduced to submissive order until their territories were ravaged and their strongholds destroyed. Insurrections were frequent during this reign; and the mysterious disappearance of Richard gave perpetual facilities for rumours that the true owner of the crown would make his appearance. In the latter days of the king's reign, hostilities broke out with France, arising chiefly from the piratical attacks of the sailors of the two nations upon each other's ships.

The questionable nature of the king's title was of advantage to the liberties of the country. Nay, the conflict between the York and Lancaster families had all along a great effect in establishing the constitution, for they had to meet the wishes of the



parliament and people to secure support and popularity. The Commons in this reign drew tighter than ever their hold on the supplies of public money. They would allow the king none for wasteful wars with which he desired to divert the nation from its discontents. In the sixth year of his reign they granted some taxes on the condition that they should be employed in the defence of the kingdom, and not otherwise, and actually appointed treasurers of their own to watch the expenditure. They had adopted a system which was very provoking to the king, but at the same time very effective. When he desired money they drew up a list of grievances, presented it, and stated that as soon as these were remedied the matter of granting supplies would be considered. Thus they obtained the removal of several abuses. One was the practice of altering statutes after they had been passed. It was arranged that nothing should be law but the very words that had been adopted by the Lords and the Commons together. The privy-council had been in the habit of interfering in legal matters, and the parliament insisted on these being left to the usual courts of law.

3. The followers of Wickliffe, now called Lollards, were conspicuous in this reign, and the first statute authorizing persecution was enacted against them. It required all persons who propagated the new doctrines to renounce their heresies, give up their books, and submit to the church. But the ecclesiastical courts were not invested with authority to punish such persons; for the English have always shown great jealousy of judicial powers in the hands of churchmen, and they were to be handed over to the civil judge. Under this law William Sawtre, a London clergyman, suffered death; and William Thorpe, a learned and distinguished priest, was sent to prison, where he is supposed to have died.

The troubled career of Henry ended with his death on the 20th March 1413. While praying at the shrine of Saint Edward in Westminster Abbey, he was seized with a fit, and conveyed into what is called the Jerusalem Chamber, where he expired, recalling the coincidence of an old prophecy which bore that he would die at Jerusalem.

4. HENRY V.—His own son, Henry, who succeeded him, had early shown a heroic disposition, conspicuous in the battle of Shrewsbury. His youth was marked by irregularities and eccentricities; and if we may believe all that has been written of him, we must identify the heir of the crown with the leader of a band of robbers. It would be now difficult to say what truth there may be in the story of those revels with

the renowned Sir John Falstaff and the other frolics which are so delightfully depicted by Shakspeare. At all events, however his youth may have passed, he felt the solemn importance of his position when he came to wear the crown. An incident has been often repeated as an illustration of this striking amendment. In defence of one of his riotous companions he had insulted Gascoigne, the lord chief-justice. That high officer did not hesitate to imprison the heir to the crown. At his accession Gascoigne of course expected no countenance; but the king wisely held that the judge who had imprisoned the prince, was too valuable a servant for his independence and his courage to be lost, and the chief-justice came into high favour.

The first years of Henry's reign were disturbed by the Lollards, who, very probably, driven to exasperation by the oppressive laws against them, made demands which extended beyond religious toleration, and affected the law and constitution so much as to alarm a great portion of the community. Their leader was Sir John Oldcastle, usually known as Lord Cobham. He had been in early life one of the king's dissipated companions, and he had changed, not so wisely as Henry, to adopt an eccentric fanaticism, ever devising violent and dangerous plots. The clergy demanded that he should be summarily dealt with; but the king was averse to harshness, desiring to reason with him and treat him kindly. The projects of Cobham, however, became too serious to be overlooked. He formed a deep conspiracy for attacking and seizing the person of the king. By caution and decision his designs were baffled and his partisans dispersed, while he himself was imprisoned. He escaped, but was afterwards discovered and hanged.

5. AGINCOURT.—The ambitious mind of Henry soon began to brood over the old claims of the kings of England on France, which was torn by the conflicting factions of the Burgundians and Armagnacs. He intimated that he would be content if, in addition to the fulfilment of the treaty of Bretigny, he should obtain Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and part of Provence, while he desired to ally himself with the royal family of France, by marrying the king's daughter, Catherine. His terms not being complied with, in the spring of 1415 he announced to the nation his intention of invading France, and was well supplied with the means; for, notwithstanding the objections which had been made to the expenditure of money on the ambitious projects of the king, the prospect of a victorious war in France was generally popular. Landing at the mouth of the Seine,

he wasted some time in besieging the town of Harfleur. He thence desired to march towards the English town of Calais, but the Somme, which he had to cross, was so well guarded by the French army, that he was forced to ascend as far as St Quentin ere he could accomplish the passage. The French had assembled a numerous and brilliant host. They were an army 50,000 strong, including the princes of the blood royal and the flower of the nobility. Henry's army did not amount to ten thousand fighting men, but they were picked. What gave him a special advantage was, that the inferior class of his soldiers—the bow-men and bill-men—were nearly as well trained and armed as the French knights, instead of being a wretched rabble like the feudal followers of the continental kings. Henry's confidence in his compact little army was so great, that he called on the enemy to come forth into the open country and meet him. It had hitherto been thought the cause of the misfortunes of the French in battle, that they charged with too much impetuosity, and threw themselves into confusion. Resolved not to commit the same error, they waited

25th Oct. } on the field of Agincourt for the attack of the Eng-  
 1415. } lish, but with the same result. The archers moved forward in a compact body, planted stakes before them which stopped the attacks of cavalry, and sent their deadly cloth-yard shafts into the dense mass of their enemies, while the mail-clad knights penetrated it with their gigantic horses. The French cavalry, making repeated charges on the bow-men, fell back and threw their own ranks into confusion, which communicated itself at last to the whole huge mass. So many prisoners were taken that they exceeded the number of the victorious army, and Henry, on the plea of necessity, adopted the cruel policy of putting a considerable number of them to death. This was the most disastrous day which France had yet seen. There lay on that fatal field seven princes of the blood, and 8000 of the landed nobility of France. Several men of high rank, including the Duke of Orleans, were brought prisoners through Calais to England, and their ransoms would of course be looked to as the fortunes of their captors. Such a blow should have paralyzed faction in France, but its inflicter had no sooner crossed the channel than the insane conflicts of the parties grew fiercer and fiercer. Horrible crimes and outrages were committed, and either party was ready to join with the English or any other power that might ensure it a triumph over its rival. Henry could not resist the opportunity of conquest thus afforded. He went over with a larger army than England had ever before sent abroad, amounting

to about 40,000 men. By the beginning of the year 1419 he was master of Normandy, the original domain of his family. A meeting had been arranged between the dauphin, as the head of the Armagnac or Orleans party, and the Duke of Burgundy. It was to be held—such was the suspicious nature of the age—in the middle of a bridge, with a barrier between the two parties. By some accident a door was opened, and the Duke of Burgundy was stabbed by a follower of the dauphin. The duke's son, burning with revenge, proceeded to the camp of Henry, and offered his aid in seizing the French crown. The people of Paris hated the Orleans party, and were not unwilling to receive Henry as their monarch. In 1420, by the treaty of Troyes, he obtained the hand of the Princess Catherine of France, who soon afterwards bore him a son. With his bride and the unfortunate French king he made a triumphal entry into London, when the citizens showed their pride in their heroic sovereign. The dauphin, who supported his father's cause, was now limited to a small territory north of the Loire, and Henry had just completed the object of his ambition in being declared King of France, when he died in August 1422.

6. HENRY VI.—The crown now devolved on a mere infant, for Henry VI. was not ten months old at his father's death; yet the machinery of government proceeded in his name, and the immediate summoning of parliament bore to be by his express order. It would have been a favourable opportunity for the house of York to come forward, but its representative was also a minor. By the death of Edmund the last earl of March, the pretensions of the family were inherited by Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, the son of Anne Mortimer. The parliament, though it assembled in the king's name, was absolute, and had the whole disposal of the empire. The first act in the English language dates from this session,—an indication that the influence of the commons was prevailing over that of the Norman barons. The parliament appointed the Duke of Bedford, the king's uncle, to be regent, and while he was absent in France he was to be represented in England by his brother the Duke of Gloucester, who thus, under an authority deputed by parliament to his brother, and then by his brother to him, filled virtually the throne of England. The parliament, however, somewhat checked his power by the appointment of a permanent council of regency, consisting of five prelates, six lords, and five gentlemen.

There was a great struggle for superiority among those on whom the supreme authority was thus conferred; and Gloucester

ter had to suffer a severe opposition and rivalry from Cardinal Beaufort, a bold and unscrupulous churchman, who nearly succeeded in getting possession of the infant king. After a long conflict, Gloucester's enemies were victorious, and he was ordered into custody. He was soon afterwards found dead in his bed. To satisfy the people that he had died a natural death, his body was exhibited in public; but though there were no marks of violence on it, few doubted that he had been murdered by the cardinal. His memory was for ages popular as that of "the good Duke Humphrey." His tomb in the old church of St Paul's was long the resort of the idle loungers of London; and it came to be a saying when one of them had no dinner to eat, but spent his time at that lounging-place, that he "dined with Duke Humphrey." To his encouragement of literature England is deeply indebted. He is supposed to have founded the Bodleian Library at Oxford; and by his fostered patronage many learned foreigners were induced to settle in this country.

7. The establishment of Henry V. on the throne of France was so complete that his infant heir was proclaimed at Paris without opposition. Some conflicts afterwards took place, in which the most formidable opposition to the English was made by the Earl of Buchan, who had gone over with a party of Scotsmen to aid the French. They behaved with great courage, but they were few in number, and were by degrees completely exterminated.

JOAN OF ARC.—The town of Orleans on the Loire was the most important place which held out for the French interest, and the Duke of Bedford determined to besiege it. He believed that he would easily prevail, and then it seemed the inevitable fate of France to become a province of England. Succour arose, however, in a very unexpected quarter. A young woman, the daughter of a peasant in Domremi, whose occupation had been the herding of cattle, proclaimed that some of the saints of her church had appeared to her and announced that she was destined to raise the siege of Orleans, to deliver France from her oppressors, and to crown the king at Rheims. Such was the celebrated Joan of Arc—otherwise called the Maid of Orleans. She at first received little credit from the higher classes, who considered her either a bold impostor or mad; but it was soon evident that she was accepted as a sort of sacred messenger by the common people. Baudricourt, the governor of one of the French towns, was the person whom she most urgently solicited to aid her, and though he at first shook her carelessly off, he agreed at last to bring her to an interview with Charles, the heir to the crown of France. From this moment the ac-

knowledge of her divine mission spread like wildfire both among high and low ; but it would be difficult to say how many actually believed in it, or whether the greater part of the upper classes merely countenanced her because the peasantry, having a reliance on her miraculous power, would fight with spirit under her banner. The English were depressed just as much as the French were elated, and she actually succeeded in her first promise—the raising of the siege of Orleans, for in her presence the English besiegers would not strike a blow. The fervour gathered strength daily. The Duke of Bedford conducted himself with great prudence, leaving it to exhaust itself ; but this did not prevent the French, with the Maid at their head, from gaining victory after victory, until she actually assisted at the predicted crowning of the king at Rheims. Occurrences now took place disgraceful to England, but still more so to France. While defending the town of Compiègne, besieged by the Earl of Arundel, Joan was wounded and taken prisoner. The spell of her supernatural invincibility was thus broken. Her ungenerous captors refused to admit her to the privileges of a prisoner of war, because she was a woman, but treated her as a criminal. She was charged with sorcery, and the French authorities were base enough to desire that she should be punished. Willing, at all events, to wash their own hands of the degrading task, the English surrendered her into the hands of the church, by whom she was declared guilty of sorcery, idolatry, and heresy ; and the deliverer of France was

30th May }  
 1431. } ket-place of Rouen.

The spirit, however, which she had infused among the peasantry lived after her, and the treatment she had received exasperated them. The Duke of Bedford lost the alliance of the Duke of Burgundy, when the Duchess of Bedford, who was that prince's sister, died. It was important to the house of Burgundy not to have so powerful a master over them as a monarch who held both France and England under his sway, and accordingly the duke returned to his allegiance to the royal family of France. He assisted in recovering many towns from the English, who were at last driven out of Paris ; but when a truce was established in 1444, they still possessed several strongholds. The French were now, however, becoming consolidated, and some years before Charles VII. died in 1461, the English authority was limited to the old possession of Calais.

8. No reinforcements had been sent out to France, for England was too severely distracted by internal disputes to be

able to conduct foreign wars. Yet the populace, who prided themselves in the acquisition of France, broke out in turbulence as it slipped from the grasp of the conquerors, and the Bishop of Winchester was murdered by them; while the Duke of Suffolk, who had risen to great influence at court, was impeached on a charge of having betrayed the interests of his country. In fact, the competition for the crown between the two families was as favourable to the independence of France as it was to the growth of the English constitution, for the nation, divided against itself, had no power to throw away on foreign conquest. The incessant wars which now desolated England make the history of the times very confused and doubtful. The events, if we had true accounts of them, could now be easily narrated within a short space; but the historians of the period, like the people, were divided into two parties; for those on the side of the York family traduced the Lancastrians, who in their turn left as bad an impression as they could of the partisans of the house of York. The followers of the two parties chose different badges—those of Lancaster selected the red rose, those of York the white; and hence this long and miserable contest was known all over Europe by the name of the Wars of the Roses. Henry when he came of age showed a peaceful and indolent disposition, very ill adapted to such times; but his queen, Margaret of Anjou, was a woman of masculine courage and energy. That the king should be able to retain his crown appears to have been owing to the moderation of the Duke of York, the representative of the rival family. There were strong indications how easily the people might have been stirred to take this side, when the celebrated rebel Jack Cade appeared. Coming from Ireland, where the Duke of York lived, he called himself that prince's cousin, and took the high name of Mortimer. This brought great crowds around him, and he found himself at the head of 20,000 men, chiefly from Kent. He appealed to the king on political grievances such as we find ever the object of complaint in English history. They were the alienation of the crown property to favourites, which rendered taxes necessary, the unfair exactions of tax-gatherers, the corruption of judges, and the delay of justice. They demanded the execution of four sheriffs who were offensive to them, and the punishment of those who had accomplished the death of the Duke of Gloucester and other men trusted by the people. Sir Humphrey Stafford, who went to put down the rising, was defeated and slain by Cade at 24th June } Seven Oaks. The rebels then advanced on London,  
1450. } and demanded the Lord Say, an obnoxious minister,

to be given up, who was formally beheaded at Cheapside. Cade was now master of London, and his troops occupied it like a well disciplined army. But dissensions broke out among them, which showed the insurgent leader that he could not long trust to protection from the vengeance of the government. He fled towards the coast of Sussex, and, after enduring many privations and hardships, was slain by a gentleman named Iden.

9. The king having fallen into complete mental imbecility, the nation required a regent to govern the country and take charge of his infant son. The Duke of York had joined somewhat in the intricate wars of the time; but though apparently contesting with the royal forces, he professed no wish to restore his own family, and as his moderation produced great confidence in his good intentions, he was appointed protector. Somerset, the favourite of the court, was at the same time committed to the Tower. It was afterwards announced that the king had recovered. The queen at all events had re-established her influence. York was superseded and Somerset released. This nobleman was extremely unpopular, from many of the losses in France being attributed to his treachery or incapacity. The Duke of York headed a strong party opposed to him. They fought a battle at St Albans, where Somerset  
 22d May } was killed, and the king, slightly wounded, fell into  
 1455. } their hands. The York party were now supreme; but it would be a wearisome task to describe how the one party rose and the other fell. The Earl of Salisbury was the brother-in-law of the Duke of York, and concentrating a vast family influence, it was still farther increased in the next generation by his son Richard's marriage with the heiress of the house of Warwick, whose title he took. This Warwick, a gallant, generous, and ostentatious man, while he was courageous and able, had made himself the darling of the people, and acquired the influence which occasioned his being afterwards called the King-maker. When the Lancaster party had the upper hand, and York and his adherents were attainted, Warwick was included among them. But the Duke of York retired to Ireland, where he was safe from attack, and the fleet, committed to Somerset, who was very unpopular, deserted their commander, and put themselves under Warwick. He landed in England in 1460, with some veteran soldiers from the garrison of Calais, and accompanied by Edward the son of the Duke of York and the heir of the claims of the White Rose. A small body of troops under his command rapidly increased. The city of London was on his side. He took the king prisoner, and the queen with her young son escaped to



Scotland. York came from Ireland, but he was not made king, and it was agreed by a mutual understanding that Henry was still to be nominally the monarch, but that the crown was to descend on York at his death. The conflict now grew fiercer and fiercer. Margaret of Anjou, braving dangers and miseries of all kinds, exhibited her indefatigable spirit, and imparted a certain share of it to the partisans of her house.

30th Dec. } She embodied a powerful army, and a battle was  
1460. } fought near Wakefield, where York and a multitude of his followers were slain, while his second son was stabbed after the battle. Savage indignities were shown to the vanquished by the amazon queen, but they had only the usual result of increasing the fury of the Yorkists. The young Edward, who was now head of the house, swore that he would avenge his father's death, and he defeated the Lancastrians

1st Feb. } at Mortimer's Cross, retaliating on them some of  
1461. } Queen Margaret's cruelties. Warwick came to his aid with his popularity and his troops, and before the end of February the young representative of the White Rose, who was not yet twenty-one years of age, was established in possession

4th March } of the capital and the country. He lost no time in  
1461. } being proclaimed king.

10. EDWARD IV.—The new king did not find the throne an easy seat. That indefatigable woman, Margaret of Anjou, was still at work, moving all earthly powers in the cause rather of her son than of her husband, whose pusillanimity she despised. She collected a large army; and Edward, with his patron Warwick, had to fight several bloody battles at the beginning of his reign ere he drove Margaret again to seek safety with her son in an adventurous flight. In these conflicts many of the heads of the noblest families in England were destroyed. Some fell in battle; others were ignominiously sacrificed on the scaffold.

The young King Edward, on a hunting excursion, had paid a visit to the widow of that Duke of Bedford who had been regent in France. He there saw her daughter, the youthful widow of Sir John Gray, a strenuous partisan of the house of Lancaster. This beautiful and fascinating woman appealed so eloquently to the king to get the attainder of her house reversed, and her children reinstated in their father's property, that he gave her a legitimate claim to all his influence by making her his wife. She was first privately married, and then avowed and crowned with regal splendour. There were many reasons why Warwick disliked such a union, and among others he was at that time engaged in negotiations to unite

the king with a foreign princess. But he soon had stronger motives for disgust. His own family, the Nevilles, from the services they had been able to perform, had great claims on the king, and filled a large number of important and lucrative offices. For these there were many new competitors in the relations of the queen, who were generally of the offensive Lancastrian party. The King-maker resolved to show his power by breaking out into open revolt, "which gave rise," says Sir James Mackintosh, "to two years of more inconsistency and giddiness, more vicissitudes in the fortune and connexion of individuals, and more unexpected revolutions in government, than any other equal space of time in the history of England."

Warwick was at length compelled to quit England along with his son-in-law Clarence, the king's brother. At the court of the wily and treacherous King of France, Louis XI., there was a meet instrument for executing any kind of vengeance on the house of York,—namely that same Queen Margaret who had already shown so much turbulence and energy. Though they had been bitter enemies—and indeed Warwick had been the ruin of her cause—yet common hatred of Edward formed for them a bond of union. The young prince, Margaret's son, married Warwick's second daughter, who had thus for sons-in-law a prince of the house of York and one of the house of Lancaster. Warwick now engaged to restore the line of the Red Rose; and so great was the influence of his name, and the idea of his power over kings, that eleven days after his 4th Sept. } arrival Edward fled to Holland in a merchant vessel,  
1470. } a penniless fugitive.

Henry VI. was released from the Tower, and all seemed to be restored to the old state, as if Edward's reign had been but a short usurpation. He came back, however, with an armament supplied by the French king's enemy, the Duke of Burgundy. A battle took place at Barnet, more bloody almost than any of its predecessors, where the Lancastrians were defeated, and the restless Warwick was slain. But his indefatigable ally Margaret, not daunted by this calamity, fought another bloody battle at Tewkesbury, where her misfortunes reached their climax. There she and her son were taken prisoners. The sequel shows the brutal spirit of the times. The young prince was brought before Edward, and made a bold reply to a taunting speech. Edward struck him on the mouth with his steel gauntlet; and Clarence and Gloucester fell upon him and stabbed him to death. King Henry was not long afterwards found dead in the Tower. Edward was again absolute master of England. The assistance given

to his enemies by Louis XI. was an excuse for war with France, where he landed with a gallant force in 1475; but the Duke of Burgundy, on whom he relied, failed him, and the politic Louis got rid of so unpleasant a visiter, partly by fraud and partly by bribery. A terrible domestic tragedy stained the latter days of this bloody reign. The king never forgave his brother Clarence for siding with the Lancastrians. He was charged with an immense variety of crimes, especially different kinds of sorcery, and at last he was found dead in the Tower, where few great people lived long. That his brothers had murdered him was not doubted, and it was the popular belief that they had drowned him in a butt of Malmsey wine. Edward died on the 9th of April 1483, and it was believed that his death was hastened by rage against the perfidious Louis XI.

11. EDWARD V.—Edward was nominally succeeded by his young son, whose reign was as brief as it was melancholy. His uncle Richard of Gloucester, who was at the head of a considerable party, and had consolidated his power, professed great reverence to the new king, but in his very acts of homage seized on those relations of his mother who might have protected him; and while he brought the young king to London with much pomp, himself riding bareheaded behind, yet he lodged the boy in the Tower, professing that there were necessary reasons, in which his safety was concerned, for doing so. The queen had fled with her other son to the sanctuary at Westminster, but she was compelled to give him up, and the two children were lodged in the Tower. Gloucester was now made Protector of the kingdom, and according to the usual accounts a course of strange criminality was pursued by him. He traduced his parents, maintaining that his brother the late king and Clarence were illegitimate. He exposed Edward the Fourth's licentious life to the people, by making his mistress, Jane Shore, do public penance through the streets of London. With the aid of his guilty abettor Buckingham, a body of the citizens were made to demand that he should take the crown, and with apparently extreme reluctance he assented. In the meantime the two children in the Tower were never more heard of in life. Though he had created an impression that their father was illegitimate, yet it was well to take more effective means for removing them. Historians say that they were smothered in bed, and their bodies buried at the foot of the stair. The statement has been doubted; but it seems to be confirmed by the discovery of some children's bones on the spot.

12. RICHARD III.—Gloucester mounted the throne in 1483 as Richard III. The crimes laid to his charge are too many to be enumerated. He is described as a monster in scarcely human shape, crooked, hump-backed, and of a hideous countenance. On the other hand, however, it has been maintained that many of his crimes, and especially the account of his deformities, are but the misrepresentations of the Lancastrian historians, whose party was afterwards the triumphant one. His bloody reign was not a long one; but if it was fatal to the royal family and the aristocracy, it was rather advantageous to the people, for a king whose title was so questionable, and who was stained with so many crimes, was fain to propitiate popular support by the redress of grievances. The late king's daughters were still alive, and it was the politic design of Richard to marry the Princess Elizabeth to his son, but it was frustrated by the youth's death. He then, though she was his niece, proposed a union with her himself, and strangely enough, neither its criminality nor his atrocious conduct to her family frightened the queen mother from acceding to the connexion; but he found it would raise a religious storm against him too formidable to be resisted.

The murder of two innocent children in the secret recesses of a dungeon was an incident to raise the honest English nature to an indignation which could not be counteracted by constitutional advantages. From the beginning of his reign it was sought to supersede him by an heir of the house of Lancaster. None nearer could be found, without taking a prince from a foreign country, than Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, the grandson by a daughter, Margaret, of John, duke of Somerset, who was a grandson of John of Gaunt. At the beginning of Richard's reign his own abettor Buckingham conspired for Henry and was beheaded. Ere, however, Richard had been much more than two years on the throne, Henry himself landed 7th Aug. } at Milford Haven with about 5000 men. Richard's  
1485. } fate was sealed. As the two armies approached each other on the celebrated field of Bosworth, multitudes deserted from him, and joined the standard of the adventurer. Richard did not want courage, and with his own arm he fought furiously like a wolf at bay. He had almost hewn his way to the person of his rival, when he was cut down, and Henry marched in triumph to London. So ended the bloody wars of the Roses.

#### EXERCISES.

1. How did Henry IV. succeed to the crown? Why does his accession make an important epoch in English history? Who would have

been heir to the crown according to the modern system of hereditary descent?

2. How did his doubtful title give power to the barons? How did Percy, earl of Northumberland, act? What battle was fought with the insurgents? Mention some things remarkable in the battle of Shrewsbury. What effect had the doubtful title of the king on the constitution through the proceedings of parliament? Mention abuses of which the parliament procured the abolition.

3. What religious class became conspicuous in the reign of Henry IV.? Give an account of the law passed against them. Mention the time and circumstances of Henry's death.

4. Give an account of Henry V., showing his character as a prince and as a king. What occurred as to the Chief-justice Gascoigne? How were the early years of Henry's reign disturbed? Give an account of the proceedings of Lord Cobham.

5. What terms did Henry offer to the King of France? Give an account of the manner in which he invaded France on their refusal. Give an account of the battle of Agincourt. What was the state of France after it? Mention some incidents showing the distracted state of that country. How did Henry make a triumphal entry into London? When did he die?

6. Could Henry VI. personally govern the country when he succeeded to the throne? What was done in his name? Who was the Duke of York? Who was appointed regent, and by whom was he represented in England? Of whom did the council of regency consist? What was Gloucester's fate? What reputation did he leave behind him? What library is he said to have founded?

7. What was the state of the English power in France at the accession of Henry VI.? What town did the Duke of Bedford besiege? By what names is the heroine known who arose to deliver France? Give an account of her successes. Give an account of her fate. What was the effect on the French peasantry of the treatment which Joan of Arc received?

8. How was England prevented from pursuing conquest in France? How did the civil wars affect the people of England as well as the French? Which party was called the White and which the Red Rose? How is it that our accounts of the history of England during the Wars of the Roses are very confused? What were the respective characters of the king and queen? Give an account of Jack Cade's insurrection.

9. Give an account of the character and position of the Duke of York. What occurred at the battle of St Albans, and in what year was it fought? Who was Warwick? Give an account of his character and influence. Give an account of the manner in which he obtained supreme power. What battle was fought near Wakefield? How was the Lancastrian party overcome?

10. How was Edward IV. disturbed on the throne? What consequences had the conflicts on the English aristocracy? Give an account of the manner in which the king became attached to Lady Gray. Describe the effect of his marriage on Warwick and his followers. Give an account of what Sir James Mackintosh says of Warwick's revolt. What followed on his meeting with Margaret of Anjou? What were the results of the battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury? How did the invasion of France terminate? What was the fate of Clarence?

11. Describe the conduct of Richard of Gloucester to the young king.

What strange means were said to have been adopted by Gloucester for compassing his ends. Give an account of the story of the two young princes in the Tower.

12. What has been said of Richard III., and on what authority? How was his reign advantageous to the people? Who was the person brought forward to supersede Richard? Give an account of the battle of Bosworth.

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## CHAPTER V.

### THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, A. D. 1485—1603.

Henry VII.—The Impostors Simnel and Warbeck—Execution of Warwick—Henry VIII.—Invasion of France—Wolsey—Field of the Cloth of Gold—Defender of the Faith—Anne Boleyn—The Reformation—Holy Maid of Kent—Execution of Fisher and More—Abolition of Monasteries—Translation of the Bible—The Bloody Statute—Edward VI.—The Protector Somerset—Scottish War—Progress of the Reformation—Schemes of Northumberland—Lady Jane Grey—Mary—Wyat's Insurrection—Persecution—Elizabeth—Establishment of Protestantism—Mary Stewart—Northern Insurrection—Babington Conspiracy—The Spanish Armada—Rebellion of Essex—Progress of the Nation.

1. HENRY VII. entered London on the 28th August 1485, and was soon afterwards acknowledged by parliament and crowned. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., and thus united in his posterity the two contending dynasties. His reign of twenty-four years—long for that age of violence—is not connected with many very interesting occurrences. It was troubled for some time by the efforts of impostors representing the claims of the several branches of the royal family. Warwick, the son of Clarence, was kept a prisoner in the Tower. His father, during his viceroyalty of Ireland, had been very popular, and it was in reliance on this that a youth named Simnel endeavoured to pass himself off as the real Warwick in that island. The lord-deputy or viceroy of Ireland, Edward Fitzgerald, immediately acknowledged him, and he was received by the Irish as Edward VI. To counteract this movement, the king placed the actual Warwick in a position where he might be visited and identified. This, however, did not satisfy the Irish; and having been crowned, Simnel passed over to England with an army, which was attacked and cut to pieces. Some of the abler planners of the conspiracy were severely punished, but it was considered politic to treat the youth him-

D

self rather with contempt than severity, and he received an appointment in the royal kitchen. A more formidable impostor appeared in the person of the celebrated Perkin Warbeck, the son of a converted Jew, who being well trained to the task, pretended to be the second son of Edward IV., and said that he had escaped from the Tower. He also made  
 A. D. } his first attempt in Ireland, where he was received as  
 1491. } Richard IV. Instead, however, of breaking into open insurrection, he went about making friends.

2. Henry VII. declared war against France, more with the view of obtaining supplies for so popular an object than with a serious design of its prosecution, for he made a mere nominal expedition, and immediately returned. During these short hostilities, however, the King of France, hearing of Warbeck's pretensions, invited him to his court, where he was entertained like a prince. When peace was restored he was obliged to depart, but received much encouragement and help from the Duchess of Burgundy. Determined to make an effort for the crown, he proceeded to Ireland and thence to Scotland, where the same sort of policy that induced the King of France to encourage him made James IV. receive him with royal honours, and permit him to marry the beautiful Catherine Gordon, a lady nearly allied to the throne. Henry VII. always preferred policy to violence, and he persuaded the King of Scots to dismiss Warbeck. He soon afterwards landed in Cornwall, and found a considerable body of followers, but they were easily dispersed, and he surrendered himself. Still the politic king had difficulty in knowing how he should be treated; for there were many who believed in the reality of his pretensions, and were only deterred by prudence from supporting them openly. Indeed, from the mystery in which the deeds of that guilty period were shrouded, it is still doubtful whether the princes were actually murdered in the Tower, and it is even possible that Warbeck may not have been an impostor. His existence, though in confinement, created considerable  
 A. D. } excitement, and at last he was tried for high-treason  
 1499. } and executed. The unfortunate Earl of Warwick suffered on the charge of having aided the adventurer's schemes; but the real reason probably was, that his claims as the representative of the York family rendered Henry uneasy.

Henry avoided war, and was in general a wise king; but the constitution made slower progress during his reign than during those of many less prudent monarchs. He was intensely avaricious, and found many complicated means of extorting money from his subjects. As he did not spend it on extra-

gant wars, he was able to keep up his establishment without encountering parliaments with their petitions or grievances. His reign was felt on the whole to be an oppressive one, and the two main instruments of his cupidity, Empson and Dudley, were generally execrated. Henry VII. died on the 21st of April 1509.

3. HENRY VIII.—The singular and eventful reign of Henry VIII., the son of Henry VII., began with great rejoicings. He was young, handsome, fond of pleasure, and at first appeared to be a lenient and good-tempered monarch. His earliest act of severity even greatly aided his popularity, for he gave up the obnoxious Empson and Dudley as victims to national vengeance. He adopted what was ever the best means of becoming popular and raising money—an invasion of France; and it was believed that the glorious deeds of the Black Prince and Henry IV. were to be rivalled by those of the young monarch. He was liberally supplied by parliament; but Ferdinand, the King of Spain, the most cunning monarch of the age, had managed to get the English king's assistance towards ambitious projects of his own, and Henry made two campaigns, in which he gained advantages which were of little real importance.

4. WOLSEY.—One of the most remarkable men that has ever appeared in British history arose in this reign, and rapidly obtained the complete confidence of the king—Thomas Wolsey, an ecclesiastic, better known by his title of dignity as Cardinal Wolsey. He was the son of a respectable and substantial tradesman, who had given him an excellent education. He had somewhat distinguished himself in the reign of Henry VII. by the quickness and skill with which he had transacted the business of an embassy to Flanders. On the accession of Henry VIII., Fox, bishop of Winchester, who was secretary of state, wished to have some person devoted to his own interest near the person of the monarch, and, believing that Wolsey was his humble follower, had him appointed almoner to the king. He had here abundant opportunity of becoming useful and recommending himself to the royal notice. He rose rapidly from office to office. In 1514, he was made Bishop of Lincoln, and immediately afterwards Archbishop of York. The pope concurred in advancing an ecclesiastic who was so much in the good graces of a powerful sovereign, and he was speedily raised to the rank of a cardinal. In Rome, the cardinals, being the pope's council, have not individually great power, but a cardinal in a distant country attached to the see of Rome was always a most important personage. It was even an additional



honour that the pope sent him the broad red hat attached to his dignity, as it was only the custom to do so when the cardinal belonged to a royal family. Wolsey encouraged Henry in his idleness, pomp, and fondness for every kind of enjoyment, taking the business of the state into his own hands. There were many rich livings in the royal gift, and Wolsey received the stipends of several of them while he held the office of lord chancellor. His revenues were thus princely, and he kept up a corresponding state and magnificence, which the king liked to see, as he considered it to be his own gift and a representation of his own power. The cardinal was haughty and imperious, but generous, and he seldom condescended to any kind of petty shifts or subterfuges. He twice aimed at being chosen pope; but he failed on both occasions, and these disappointments influenced his political conduct.

5. There were at that time two other monarchs who along with Henry were at the head of the destinies of Europe—Francis of France and Charles of Spain, the successor of Ferdinand. The former was of a frank open nature, warlike and fond of pleasure, and in many respects like Henry himself, but of a less cruel disposition. The other, best known as the Emperor Charles V., was a man of deeper policy and more confirmed ambition. These two sovereigns were rival competitors for the imperial crown of Germany, and each was anxious to secure the good offices of Henry. The choice fell on Charles. In their subsequent intercourse, Francis and Henry resolved to hold a pageant which should be what they considered worthy of monarchs so powerful. They met within the English territory at Calais, and arranged a succession of festivals, exhibitions, and tournaments, so magnificent, that the Aug.  
1520. } annalists attribute the ruin of many of the aristocracy both of England and France to the expenses incurred by them in what was called the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

Henry's history is that of a self-willed man, who cannot bear contradiction, and is ever in extremes. When the doctrines of Luther began to be preached in England, he repressed them by violent persecution. Immediately on his return from France he wrote to the Elector of Bavaria, calling on him to burn both the reformer and his books, and published his celebrated defence of the seven sacraments of the church of Rome. The pope was so delighted with the hearty advocacy of the hot-headed king that he bestowed on him the title of "Defender of the Faith," little dreaming how he would afterwards act. Henry was unable, like his father, to govern without parliaments. He tried various means of arbitrary exaction,

but they were always defeated, his plans having been laid with less sagacity than those of his father. A parliament was summoned in 1522, of which the virtuous Sir Thomas More was made speaker. It was merely assembled for the purpose of raising money, and was treated with some contumely, Wolsey presenting himself before the Commons with his magnificent train, and almost ordering them to grant a large supply. He was answered, however, by Sir Thomas More that it was the practice of that house to proceed to business among themselves, and in the end a far smaller sum was given than was demanded. In his subsequent attempts to levy money without the aid of parliament, the country was very nearly involved in civil war; but in reality the reign of Henry, though stained by so many dreadful tragedies, was not characterized by any serious attempts upon the constitutional privileges of the people.

6. Early in the year 1528, Henry set his affections on Anne Boleyn, the daughter of a country gentleman, and one of the ladies of the court. She was not more remarkable for her beauty, than for her prudence and firmness, since she resisted all the inducements which the king could offer, in an age when a lapse from virtue in such circumstances would not have been visited with the severity of the present day. Henry at last resolved to marry her, but there was a difficulty in his already having a wife. She was, however, in a very peculiar position. Henry had an elder brother, Arthur, who died before he was seventeen years of age. He had been even then, however, six months married to Catherine of Aragon, daughter of the king of Spain. After his death she was espoused by Henry. It was said that the marriage with his brother had been merely nominal. However it may have been, Henry now began to express doubts about the legality of his own marriage, saying that his reason for doing so was his desire to have children whose legitimacy could not be questioned. All the bishops, except one, supported Henry in his desire for a divorce. It was also supported by Wolsey, who had some ambitious views of his own connected with it. But when he saw that it was the king's design, immediately he was free of Catherine, to marry Anne Boleyn, he opposed that project to the utmost. Thus he made two enemies—the existing queen and her destined successor. Anne saw real danger to her prospects should the influence of the cardinal continue, and her own was sufficient to make the king promise to disgrace him. He was charged with transgressing the statute of *Præmunire*, which had been passed with a view of checking the

abuse of the papal authority in England. The decision of the court put him beyond the protection of the law, and thus at the mercy of the king. He was relentlessly stripped of all his preferments and banished from court, so poor as to be almost at a loss for the ordinary comforts of life. Most of the parasites deserted him, but it showed his good qualities that some of his friends clung to him with great firmness and disinterestedness. In his abjectness a reaction took place in his favour. It even communicated itself to the capricious king, who began to reinstate him in his offices. The relations of Anne Boleyn, however, and his other enemies, were bent on his destruction, and the hostility to the court of Rome, which was beginning to appear, was favourable to their designs. The Earl of Northumberland was sent to arrest the cardinal for high-treason, who on his way to London became suddenly ill. He took refuge in the monastery at Leicester, and on entering it said, "Father Abbot, an old man, weary of the  
 Nov. } world, has come to lay his bones among you;" and  
 1530. } there he died.

7. THE REFORMATION.—The king had been privately married to Anne before he obtained, in 1533, a judgment of the Convocation pronouncing his previous marriage void. The new queen was now solemnly crowned, but Catherine appealed to the pope. This brought before the court of Rome a perplexing question, which it viewed rather as its interests might be affected by provoking Henry VIII. on the one hand or the emperor on the other. After much delay the latter interest prevailed, and the validity of the marriage was declared. But in the meantime, great changes were in progress. It had been suggested by Cranmer that, instead of taking the decision of the pope, the king should consult learned men as to the interpretation which they gave to the Word of God in its bearing on the matter. These views were placed in a more distinct light by Thomas Cromwell. He was the son of a tradesman, educated as a lawyer; and when Wolsey was in his glory, he held office as his solicitor, whose position was not much lower than that of a law officer of the crown. He showed the excellent firmness of his nature by a gallant defence of his fallen patron. He proposed that the king should repudiate the authority of the pope, and be himself the head of the Anglican church. Cromwell was made a member of a new ministry, including Norfolk, Suffolk, and the chancellor, Sir Thomas More, all of whom, if they did not go so far as a complete severance from Rome, were yet inclined to reform the church. The spirit of a complete revolution, however, had now caught

the legislature, encouraged as they were by the known wishes of the king. In 1533 and 1534, a series of statutes was passed, which may be called the beginning of the Reformation. The church of England was withdrawn from obedience to the see of Rome, and appeals to Rome from proceedings of the courts in England were rendered punishable. Arrangements were made for the election and consecration of prelates without the intervention of the pope; the pecuniary contributions to the Vatican, called Peter's Pence, were abolished; and many of the powers of licensing, dispensing, &c., which had been exercised "by the Bishop of Rome, called the Pope," were transferred to the Archbishop of Canterbury.

8. While these changes went on, and the king was supported in them by the nation in general, which felt much satisfaction in throwing off the yoke of the church of Rome, he began to show his savage nature, using the power which he thus obtained to crush every one who opposed him in his wishes. A young woman subject to fits, who professed to have the gift of prophecy, attracted much attention even from people of rank and education. She was called the Holy Maid of Kent. At the present day she would probably have been committed to a lunatic asylum, where she would have been cured, or at least taken care of. But her prophecies, which were very severe against Henry, were made a matter of state inquiry, and she, along with those who were said to be her accomplices, suffered death. Bishop Fisher, who refused to acknowledge the king's supremacy over the church, was executed; and Henry on the occasion vented the cruel jest, that the pope might send to him, as he had done to Wolsey, a cardinal's hat, but care would be taken that he should have no head to wear it. Sir Thomas More, a man of great learning and fine intellect, was the next victim: he was executed under a law making it treason "to do anything by writing or act which was to the slander, disturbance, or prejudice of the marriage with the Lady 7th July } Anne." But as Henry had grown tired of his queen,  
1535. } she was the next great victim; and being condemned on a charge of infidelity to her husband, of which impartial historians do not believe her to have been guilty, she was executed on the 19th of May 1536, and next morning the king married his third wife, the Lady Jane Seymour. She happily died in the autumn of the ensuing year, after giving birth to the Prince Edward, who for a short time occupied the throne.

9. While these domestic events were occurring in the palace, the abolition of the old ecclesiastical system went on rapidly.

Wolsey had set the example of abolishing the monasteries with which England was filled, and endowing universities with their revenues. It was now found more agreeable to the great lords to take possession of their rich endowments. Henry required money, and a vast source of wealth was before him in these institutions. They were suppressed in large numbers, and the nobility obtained their estates on easy terms; while the money paid for them, and sometimes the produce of their plate and other valuables, went into the king's exchequer. There is no doubt that these establishments were very corrupt, and that they did little good in comparison with the large revenues they enjoyed. But it has often been regretted that they were not abolished in a more systematic manner, and that the property, which might have been of immense benefit and importance to the community at large, went to supply the extravagance of a dissolute monarchy, and the selfishness of a greedy aristocracy. The monastic establishments were supposed to possess a fifth part of the wealth of the kingdom. This is perhaps an exaggeration; but it was impossible to make so much wealth as they possessed suddenly change hands without extreme hardship being felt by a large portion of the community. A number of persons were supported by these establishments—some as servants and officers, for taking charge of their property—others as mere vagrants or mendicants, who lived by passing from one monastery to another, and enjoying the hospitality they afforded. It would have been well for the country to be rid of this horde of useless idle people; but by the sudden change, which made no arrangement for looking after them, they were thrown loose on society, and long persecuted the industrious part of the population as vagrants, beggars, or plunderers. In the northern counties the change created great disturbances, which were with difficulty suppressed, and threatened at one time to develop themselves in a permanent civil war. It did not tend to stop these proceedings that Henry was excommunicated by the pope. He had now entirely severed himself and the kingdom from any connexion with the see of Rome, which had no more influence in England than any other foreign state.

10. While these things were in progress, an occurrence took place which, in the midst of all the turmoil and cruelty of that bloody reign, quietly established itself in the minds of the people as a lasting blessing. The Bible was translated into English, printed, and ordered to be kept in churches. It generally formed a large folio volume in the old English black-letter type. It was bound between pieces of wood covered

with leather, and the copy belonging to each church was usually chained to a pillar in the nave, or some other accessible place. Thither the people resorted with wonder and interest, and while one, who was well instructed, read the contents of the sacred page, others sat in silent and intense interest devouring its contents.

As the king was now constituted head of the church, he felt himself entitled to act like the old ecclesiastical authorities, and issue a form of faith. So long as the parliament continued to support him, he had a great advantage over merely ecclesiastical authorities, since he possessed the whole power of the state to enforce his views. He accordingly issued a proclamation, which was afterwards strengthened by an act of parliament A. D. } called "An Act for abolishing Diversity of Opinions."  
1539. } It is difficult for any one who reads this document in the present day, and knows that it was enacted by a monarch who did so much for the Reformation, to believe it to be genuine. The first article condemns to death any one who, either in writing or by word of mouth, denies the real presence of the body and blood of our Saviour in the bread and wine as taken at the communion. The other articles chiefly relate to the clergy, enjoining celibacy, while they include a vindication of private masses and the confessional. Thus, while the king was resolutely protestant himself, he was determined that his subjects should adhere to the old faith. The act received the name of "The Bloody Statute." It caused much reckless sacrifice of life, and yet was perhaps still more cruel in the general alarm it propagated.

11. Henry desired an alliance with some sovereign house of Europe, and in 1540 he was married to Anne of Cleves, a worthy woman, although somewhat homely in her appearance. The king had never felt any affection for this princess, and shortly after their nuptials he began to speak disparagingly of her, and to avoid her society. The facility with which the parliament, the courts of law, and all the great officers of state, helped this disgusting tyrant in the indulgence of his inclinations, has been a lasting disgrace to England. He was not, like the King of France, a despotic monarch who could do precisely as he pleased, without asking any one's consent; but those who should have checked his career were too ready in consenting to it. At the end of six months Anne of Cleves was divorced, and he was married to Catherine Howard. She, like her cousin Anne Boleyn, was speedily charged with infidelity to her husband, probably with no more reason, and was beheaded on the 14th of February 1542. In the July following, he married Lady

Catherine Parr, who had the good fortune to survive him, and who must while she was queen have felt that the dangers of her position were a dear price to pay for its rank.

In his latter days Henry became ambitious of influencing the politics of Europe, and invaded France, where he took Boulogne. But there was a spirited monarch on the throne; the people had improved, and the old days of English victories were over, so that Henry had to return and defend his own country. Towards the end of the year 1546 he became the victim of horrible and painful diseases, which irritated his savage temper, and made him more cruel than ever. He died on the 28th of January 1547.

12. EDWARD VI.—Henry by his several wives left two daughters, and a son who, though only nine years old, was his successor according to the ordinary hereditary principles, which were now generally followed, unless there was some special reason for departing from them. Henry had been authorized by act of parliament to regulate the succession by will, and to appoint executors to the young prince, who should rule during his minority. At the head of this body was placed Lord Hertford, created Duke of Somerset. He was declared to be "Governor of His Majesty, lord protector of all his realms, and lieutenant-general of all his armies." This gave him the full power of a monarch, and he was of a nature inclined to exercise it. He ruled with a strong hand at home; and he cruelly ravaged part of Scotland, following up a design of Henry VIII. to enforce a marriage between Edward and his cousin the young Queen of Scots. The Scottish leaders admitted that a union of the crowns on equal terms would be very advantageous, but their high spirit revolted against coercion. They had no objection to the match, they said, but they liked not the manner of wooing; and they cut the matter short by sending their young queen to the court of France.

The feature which has chiefly marked Somerset's government is the progress of the Reformation. It now went on with a steady purpose, instead of being subject to the wild caprice of a tyrant. The populace, sympathizing rather too ardently with the government, showed a disposition to deface and destroy the fine Gothic buildings throughout the country; but this was checked, while care was taken to remove such images as had been abused by being the objects of pilgrimage and worship. The six articles of Henry VIII. were recalled. The clergy were permitted to marry by an act in which celibacy was recommended to them. A liturgy or form of worship was prepared by a committee of prelates and divines appointed by

the council, and an act for uniformity of worship was passed, appointing it to be used in churches. It is, with slight variation, the same that is still to be found in the Prayer-book of the church of England.

13. In those days abstract toleration was a thing never imagined. Gardiner, Bonner, and others, therefore, who were determinedly opposed to the new order of things, were committed to the Tower; and the Lady Mary, Catherine of Aragon's daughter, who adhered sternly to the old faith, was treated with great severity. It was deemed of the utmost moment to the progress of the Reformation that, being the next heir to the crown, she should be converted, and this state necessity was alleged as a justification of endeavours to prohibit her from even exercising her religion in private. But it has ever been the glory of those who ruled in Edward's reign that no one was put to death for his religion. The changes were not made without disturbances in various parts of the country by the friends of the old faith, stirred up in many instances by the inmates of the abolished religious houses; but there was no actual civil war in this short reign.

The power and ambition of Somerset were becoming offensive, and even alarming, to his fellow-peers, and the Roman-catholics naturally hated him. Thus a coalition was formed against him which he was not strong enough to resist, and he was hurled from power and imprisoned. Heavy charges were preferred against him, and, after a trial by his peers, he was beheaded. The head of the coalition was Dudley, earl of Warwick, who succeeded to his authority, and was raised to the dukedom of Northumberland. This man now entertained a very deep project of ambition. The Princess Mary had been declared illegitimate, to make room for Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate for a similar object. Henry's sister's daughter, the Queen of Scots, would naturally be passed over; but then there was the Lady Jane Grey, the granddaughter of his other sister Mary. Northumberland plotted her establishment on the throne; and in preparation for the event, married her to his own son, Lord Guildford Dudley. The evidently declining health of the young prince was the chief inducement to this arrangement. Edward had shown the docility and the love of study which often attend infirm health. He respected learning, and founded many institutions for purposes of instruction and charity. His disposition and abilities made him revered by all around him; and, to their great grief, he died on 28th July 1553, at the age of sixteen.



14. **MARY.**—Northumberland, maturing his plot, proclaimed Lady Jane Grey immediately on the king's death; but the nation did not recognise her as queen, and Mary had no difficulty in securing the throne. Northumberland was beheaded, and Lady Jane and her husband committed to the Tower. It was natural that Mary should release Gardiner, Tunstal, and the other clergymen, who had been imprisoned for adhering to catholicism. But this was only the beginning of steps which proceeded to the undoing of all the changes of the previous reign. It was suspected that Mary and her supporters had still deeper designs; and the supposition was confirmed by her marriage with her relation Philip, the cruel and bigoted king of Spain. This union was extremely odious, and Philip felt himself so unpopular that he remained but a brief time in England. Meanwhile the alliance occasioned an insurrection under Sir Thomas Wyatt, which was put down without much difficulty. It was followed by an act which created great indignation. Under the plea that the authors of this outbreak were connected with her, it was resolved to sacrifice Lady Jane Grey. She was not seventeen years old—beautiful, learned, and amiable; and the attempt to place her on the throne had not been countenanced by herself. She and Dudley were beheaded in the precincts of the Tower; and Lady Jane, as she went to the block, met the executioner's men conveying away the body of her husband.

It was now resolved to restore England to connexion with the court of Rome. At the head of this movement was Cardinal Pole, a relation of the queen's, a zealous but merciful man, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, who was politic and cruel. A court of ecclesiastical commission was appointed to put down protestantism under the name of heresy. A persecution followed, in which it is computed that between two and three hundred people suffered death. The number was small when compared with the slaughters on the continent; but it was sufficient to transmit the austere queen to posterity as "Bloody Mary." Among the victims who commanded chief interest and compassion were three bishops—Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer; while Bishop Bonner, the successor of one of them, gained an evil fame for his zeal as a persecutor. To these causes of popular dislike was added the loss of Calais, surprised by the French. Mary died on the 17th of November 1558.

15. **ELIZABETH.**—The accession of a new queen, who was known to be likely to change all that Mary had been doing, was received with great joy by the nation. A portion of the

Roman-catholics, looking upon Elizabeth as illegitimate, considered Mary, queen of Scots, as the rightful sovereign, but they were not strong enough to disturb the succession. One of the first proceedings after her accession was the holding of a parliament, which annulled what had been done in the former reign, and created the protestant establishment of England. It severed the country from its connexion with Rome by "An Act to restore to the Crown the Ancient Jurisdiction over the Estate Ecclesiastical and Spiritual, and abolishing all foreign Powers repugnant to the same." The statute for the promotion of a protestant system of worship was called "An Act for the Uniformity of Common Prayer and Service in the Church, and Administration of the Sacraments." It did not by any means allow perfect freedom of conscience. On the contrary, it levied considerable penalties on those who ventured to differ from the prescribed ordinances. Thus, not only were the Roman-catholics subject to punishments and disabilities, but also a new religious body who had sprung up in the country, called Puritans, who disliked the episcopal hierarchy, and various other features of the English establishment, as savouring of popery. It was, however, the policy of the government never to punish cruelly, and to hold a sort of middle course, in which the catholics supported it against the puritans, and the puritans against the catholics. Elizabeth took care never to be flagrantly oppressive or to permit any misgovernment to come to a head. When the parliament, as it did on various occasions, began to hunt out some great grievance, she had it amended almost before they were prepared to complain of it.

16. MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.—The Queen of England, remembering how many Roman-catholics were in her dominions, could not view the pretensions of Mary of Scotland A. D. } without uneasiness. That unhappy queen, dethroned 1568. } and a fugitive, sought protection from Elizabeth, who placed her in confinement. Her very existence, however, seemed fraught with danger. In 1569, the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland raised an insurrection in the north for her release and the restoration of the ancient worship. It was not suppressed without much bloodshed. The Duke of Norfolk soon afterwards countenanced a plan to release her, marry her, and raise her to the throne, but he was detected and executed. So long after this as the year 1586, a still more formidable conspiracy, at the head of which was Anthony Babington, was planned for putting Elizabeth to death as the great enemy of the catholic cause. Though Mary knew little

of the ultimate objects of the conspirators, her name was mixed up with them in a manner which seemed to justify Queen Elizabeth in taking measures for her own protection. The darkest spot on her history is connected with this matter. She desired the death of Mary, without being responsible for bringing it about; and it is now proved that she gave significant hints to the officers about her that it was their duty to put their captive out of the way—hints which, to the honour of the English gentlemen of that age, no one would follow up. At length a commission was issued for the trial of Mary, and she was found guilty, condemned, and executed. To the last Elizabeth preserved her duplicity, pretending that she did not  
 8th July } intend the execution to take place, though she signed  
 1587. } the necessary warrant.

17. THE ARMADA.—A new danger now threatened not only the queen, but the whole nation, and even the neighbouring kingdom of Scotland, which assisted in averting the danger. Philip II., king of Spain, the widowed husband of Mary of England, had resolved on preparing a gigantic armament sufficient to crush England, the great stronghold of protestantism. From the mines in the new world and other sources, Spain, now one of the poorest countries, was then the richest in Europe. Its vast resources were to be devoted to the preparation of a naval armament, called the Armada, which set out under the Duke of Medina Sidonia. It was the false idea of the proud Philip that wealth alone, expended in the building of huge ships, will make a powerful fleet; he forgot that they are only unmanageable encumbrances if they have not hardy and skilful sailors. From the commencement to the end the fleet proved too unwieldy for its commanders and seamen. It was subjected to many delays and casualties before it was attacked. The enthusiasm of the English nation rising with the occasion, a vast land armament was raised to repel a landing, and Queen Elizabeth, armed and on horseback, reviewed her troops at Tilbury Fort, her masculine spirit rejoicing in their soldierly aspect and high resolution. The comparatively small but well managed fleet was committed to Lord Effingham, who had under him Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher—all veteran practical sailors. Their ships, being easily manageable, hovered round the vast armada, assailing it in various shapes with unflinching success, and seizing several of the huge vessels; while so many of them were destroyed by tempests that but a wretched remnant returned to Spain. The rejoicing and thankfulness of the nation were great, and were increased when from the captured vessels were removed instruments of torture,

and weapons of fantastic and to appearance frightfully devastating forms, which are still the wonder of the visitors to the Tower.

18. Elizabeth owed much of the success of her reign to her sagacious minister Burleigh. She was herself a woman who with great strength of mind, as we have seen, had strange weaknesses. She had a singularly hard unpleasing countenance, but even when age had increased its asperities, she loved nothing better than the grossest personal compliments. She was never more delighted than when the handsome young men about her court seemed to be irresistibly smitten by her charms, and in the instances of Dudley, earl of Leicester, Essex, and others, she is said to have even encouraged them with hopes more or less distant. Essex, indeed, presumed upon her favour, and became a powerful rival of the minister Burleigh. Just after Burleigh's death in 1598, when his influence appeared supreme, he went to Ireland to quell a serious outbreak headed by the Earl of Tyrone. Becoming tired of the harassing duty, he returned before it was accomplished; and Elizabeth, who could never overlook neglect of duty, showed her severe displeasure by depriving him of his offices, and ordering him to remain a prisoner in his own house. The impetuous favourite, trusting to utterly fallacious hopes, burst into open rebellion, and was overpowered and executed. It was said that the queen never enjoyed happiness after consenting to his death.

The progress made by England during her long reign was very great. Literature and philosophy, among other names that in any ordinary age would have been eminent, produced Shakspeare and Bacon. Commerce increased, and with it agriculture, wealth, and comfort. The people were at ease for their liberties and franchises were honestly observed, the queen confining her caprices and severities to those who haunted the court and sought its preferments. The navy had become a formidable power, and by the achievements of Drake, of Cavendish, and others, the English name was feared and respected throughout the world. The queen died on the 24th of March 1603.

#### EXERCISES.

1. In what year did Henry VII. enter London? How did he unite the claims of the lines of York and Lancaster? In what manner did Simnel disturb his reign? What more formidable impostor appeared?

2. With what views did Henry make war on France? Describe the manner in which Warbeck continued to pursue his pretensions. What was Warbeck's fate? State the character of Henry as a king, and its effect on the constitution.

3. How did the reign of Henry VIII. begin? How did he obtain popularity? Who gained him over to his own objects?

4. Give an account of Cardinal Wolsey. Mention the principal dignities bestowed on him, and the nature of his authority as a cardinal. How did he secure the favour of the king? What was his character? What disappointments influenced his conduct?

5. Who were the monarchs who influenced the destinies of Europe? What were the characters of Francis and Charles? Give an account of the Field of the Cloth of Gold. How did Henry acquire the title of Defender of the Faith? Describe the manner in which parliament acted, and the effect of Henry's reign on the constitution.

6. Who was Anne Boleyn? How did she become connected with the history of England? Who was Catherine of Aragon? What did Henry profess as his motive for repudiating her? How did this question affect Cardinal Wolsey? Give an account of the Cardinal's fall.

7. What judgment did the king obtain in 1533? How did the pope act? What was suggested by Cranmer? Who was Thomas Cromwell? What did he propose? What were the views of the middle party? Give an account of the statutes passed against the Romish ascendancy.

8. What view did the nation in general take of these proceedings? What character did the king develop? Explain the occurrences about the Holy Maid of Kent. What was the fate of Sir Thomas More? How did Henry get rid of Anne Boleyn and marry a third time?

9. What example had Wolsey set? How was it enlarged on? What were the motives for the abolition of the religious houses? Describe the immediate effect of the abolition in a pecuniary point of view. What was its effect on the northern counties?

10. What important occurrence took place in the midst of the confusion of this reign? Describe a Bible of the period. Where were Bibles kept and read? What steps did the king take in ecclesiastical matters? Give an account of the act for abolishing diversity of opinions. What name did the act receive?

11. What new alliance did Henry make? What was disgraceful to England in his reign? How did he act to Anne of Cleves? Who was his next wife, and what was her fate? Who was Catherine Parr? What attempt was made on France? When and how did Henry die?

12. What arrangements were made for the succession to the throne? Who was made Protector? On what ground was war made on Scotland? What was the result of it? Describe the proceedings as to ecclesiastical matters in this reign.

13. How far was toleration known in Edward's reign? How were Gardiner, Bonner, and others treated? What coalition was formed against Somerset? Who triumphed over him? Who was Lady Jane Grey? Describe the plot concocted by Northumberland.

14. Who was proclaimed queen? Who actually succeeded? What were the designs of Mary and her supporters? Whom did she marry? What was the fate of Lady Jane Grey? What ecclesiastical movement took place? Describe the persecution which followed. When did Mary die?

15. What was the effect of Elizabeth's accession? What questions were started as to her title? Describe the manner in which the Reformation proceeded. What religious bodies were subject to punishments and disabilities? Describe Elizabeth's policy.

16. How was Mary, Queen of Scots, in a position to give Elizabeth

alarm? Give an account of the conspiracies of the catholics. What is the darkest spot on Elizabeth's reputation? What was the fate of Queen Mary?

17. What new danger threatened the country? Give an account of the Spanish Armada and of its fate. How had the English ships a superiority over the Spanish? What increased the rejoicings of the nation?

18. To whom did Elizabeth owe much of the success of her reign? What were her weaknesses? Who was Essex? What was his fate? What was the state of England in Elizabeth's reign? When did she die?

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## CHAPTER VI.

### FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES I. TO THE REVOLUTION, A. D. 1603—1688.

James I.—Gunpowder Plot—Growth of Parliamentary Independence—Monopolies abolished—Charles I.—Impeachment and Murder of Buckingham—Petition of Rights—Disputes between the King and the Commons—Ship-money—The Long Parliament—Strafford's Impeachment—Irish Massacre—Civil War—Cromwell—Dispute between the Army and Parliament—Pride's Purge—Trial and Execution of the King—Republic—Reduction of Ireland and Scotland by Cromwell—Protectorate—Restoration—Charles II.—Misgovernment—Fall of Clarendon—Shutting the Exchequer—Test-act—Popish Plot—Habeas Corpus Act—Execution of Russell and Sidney—James II.—Rebellion of Monmouth and Argyle—Judge Jeffries—Declaration of Indulgence—Encroachments at Oxford—Trial of the Seven Bishops—Birth of the Pretender—Flight of James II.—Revolution of 1688.

1. JAMES I.—The hereditary principle was now so clearly established that James the Sixth of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary Stewart, succeeded to the crown without opposition, as a descendant of Henry VII., through his eldest daughter. All parties hailed his accession, each hoping to profit by it; the Roman-catholics on his mother's account, and the puritans, because the presbyterians had established themselves in Scotland. But James showed a decided partiality for the Church of England, which gave him a flattering position, such as no other could offer, by making him its head. The most remarkable incident in his quiet reign was the Gunpowder Plot. A few desperate Roman-catholics, instigated by one Catesby, had formed the horrible design of blowing up the houses of parliament when the king and the great officers of state would be present. They hired some cellars beneath,

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and filled them with gunpowder. The Lord Monteagle having received a mysterious warning not to attend the opening of parliament, it was shown to the king, and its contents suggested the propriety of searching the vaults beneath the two houses. This was not done until the day before that assigned for the perpetration of the tragedy, when Guy Fawkes, one of the conspirators, was found with a dark lantern, the trains being laid and everything ready. The conspirators were speedily seized and punished.

2. King James was a good-natured monarch, but he did not rightly understand the English constitution, and got into unpleasant difficulties with his parliaments. He used arrogantly to tell them to grant him money, and not trouble themselves with affairs beyond their comprehension; but they, on the other hand, voted supplies sparingly, and demanded the redress of various grievances. Among other things they obtained the abolition of grants of monopoly, which were very injurious to the country, and were a means by which the king levied money when his parliament refused to advance it. In a parliament in 1614, he imprisoned some of the less obsequious members; but this only roused the spirit of the legislature, and six years afterwards, he was obliged to submit to the interference of parliament with many departments of the government in which abuses were found. James was a man of most ungainly exterior, and many of the courtiers could not submit to the nauseous familiarity of his manners. He deeply injured his own reputation and the authority of the crown by the power to which he raised his worthless favourites, especially two of them who ruled him in succession—Carr, whom he made Earl of Rochester; and Villiers, created Duke of Buckingham, and holding the office of lord high admiral, though he knew nothing about navigation. James died on 27th March 1625.

3. CHARLES I.—The succession of this unfortunate monarch seemed in every way auspicious. The nation was prosperous and peaceful, and the private character of the prince had been unexceptionable, exhibiting a favourable contrast to the vices of some of his courtiers. But he was bigoted, reserved, and self-willed, without knowing any of the means of acquiring and holding power; and it was soon seen that in a time very unfit for such attempts, he wished to make all his subjects follow his own religious views, and to govern without a parliament. An early distrust was unfortunately raised against him by his marriage with a Roman-catholic princess, Henrietta of France. The Duke of Buckingham had pos-

essed the art of continuing his ascendancy over the new king, though so very different in character from his father. Against the rapacity and pride of this favourite the parliament speedily took umbrage, and they impeached him. He was protected by the king; but all disputes in which he was personally concerned were brought to a sudden close. While preparing to proceed with an armament to protect Rochelle from Cardinal Richelieu, he was stabbed by a madman, named Felton. But as the king continued, by tonnage and poundage, forced loans, and various other means, to collect money without authority of parliament, the Commons persevered in their remonstrances. At length, in the parliament of 1628, they presented a bill called the Petition of Rights, for the redress of these and other grievances, and by their firmness compelled the king to pass it. In the ensuing year, the parliament had to declare that the terms of the Petition of Rights had not been kept, and were finding out new grievances. The king threatened the Commons with a violent entrance, which they managed partly to resist and partly evade. When the parliament adjourned, some of its members were committed to the Tower, and the king called no other for twelve years, resolving to govern by prerogative.

4. The ingenuity of the courtiers was now set to work to find out means of raising money without the aid of parliament. Strafford, who had been originally of the parliamentary party, was gained over and sent as governor to Ireland, where he replenished the exchequer by numerous forfeitures. The attorney-general discovered an old obligation on maritime towns to provide ships, supposed to have been intended to protect the country in ancient times from the Danes. It was resolved to levy a sum throughout the country as an extension of this old usage, and to call it ship-money. John Hampden, a country gentleman, gained immortal renown by his resistance to this tax.

The difficulties of the king were increased by his efforts to subdue the presbyterian spirit in Scotland. Wishing to force upon the people a form of worship prepared by Archbishop Laud, he created resistance, and an army was, in 1639, marching against him from Scotland. The covenanting troops were found to be superior to any force which the resources of Charles could bring against them, and at last, with extreme reluctance, in his hour of need he again called a parliament. It opened on the 13th of April 1640; and instead of being ready to grant a supply, which was the purpose for which its presence was desired by the king, it proceeded to examine all the



acts of royal prerogative that had been done during the past twelve years. Within a month the king dissolved it in anger. But he found, what it would have been well had he known sooner, that England was not a country that could be governed without a parliament. He was obliged to call another, and it remained so long in deliberation that it has ever been known in history as "the Long Parliament."

5. THE LONG PARLIAMENT.—On the 23d of November that celebrated body assembled, which did not separate until it had produced a revolution in the government. Strafford was the boldest and the most able supporter of Charles, and from his known courage and resources, the Commons felt that either they or he must fall. There was an old constitutional method of striking at criminals supposed to be too powerful to be justly tried by the ordinary law courts. This was by the House of Commons impeaching them before the House of Lords. This plan was tried by the Commons, on the ground chiefly of Strafford's proceedings in Ireland. It required the assent both of the lords and the king to punish him; but in 12th May } the end even the king consented to the sacrifice of  
1641. } his zealous servant, and Strafford was beheaded. A separate dispute between the king and parliament had been begun upon a different ground. Archbishop Laud and Bishop Wren were endeavouring to bring the service of the Church of England nearer to the Romish form, while several of the puritanical nonconformists had been severely punished in an unconstitutional court, called the Star Chamber. Among these was Prynne, the celebrated antiquary, who had had his ears cut off, and been branded and put in the pillory. To all these causes of suspicion was added a murderous outbreak by the Roman-catholic population of Ireland on the protestants, arising out of a political intrigue, which the king was under a strong suspicion of having countenanced. There were many presbyterians and puritans in the House of Commons, and as they proceeded to attack the hierarchy of the church, Charles made a desperate and unfortunate effort to subdue his parliament 4th Jan. } by proceeding to the lower house with armed follow-  
1642. } ers, and endeavouring to seize five of its members.

Heretofore the commons had chiefly been standing on old privileges. Now they took up a hostile position, and became aggressive. They asserted a right to command the military power of the country—a right inconsistent with the existence of royalty, and with the principle of the constitution, which gives parliament the power of granting or refusing the means by which a military force is supported, but leaves to the crown

the command of the force for which it grants supplies. From this moment the two parties—the parliamentary and the royal—had no other means of settling their differences but the sword. In the lamentable civil war which now began, the means of levying and supplying troops were chiefly with the parliamentary party; but there was a spirit of enterprise and chivalry among many of the royalists which fully made up for this advantage. These fiery spirits had a congenial commander in Prince Rupert, the nephew of the king, being the son of his sister, the Princess Palatine. At the beginning of the war, he made his cavalry tell with effect on the parliamentary forces at the battle of Edgehill and in other minor encounters. The parliamentary army received reinforcements from Scotland. The covenanting party there offered to form a union with the English parliament; and, as the presbyterian feeling was predominant in the House of Commons, the Solemn League and Covenant was agreed to by both parties, and Scottish troops, under General Lesly, joined the parliamentary forces, commanded by Essex and Fairfax.

6. CROMWELL.—As the war went on, a new spirit began to be infused into it by one who was the most commanding genius of his age. Oliver Cromwell, a middle-aged country gentleman, had entered with great enthusiasm into the parliamentary cause. He was a man of little learning and no refinement, plain, and even rough in his appearance, but he had eminent practical abilities and singular determination of purpose. A body of the old puritans were now forming themselves into the independent party. They had abjured episcopacy; but they found in the presbyterian system more interference with the right of private judgment than they liked, and they demanded an exemption from ecclesiastical authority, and the right of every man to inquire for himself or teach others. The men who adopted these views were intensely enthusiastic and devout, and Cromwell was a leader in their enthusiasm and devotion. It has often been maintained that he was a hypocrite, but this may well be questioned. At all events, a strong enthusiasm inspired both himself and a small body of troops raised by him. They were better disciplined and led than any others in the war, and received the name of Cromwell's Ironsides. He gradually rose to higher command, and

2d July } when a decisive battle was fought with the royal  
1644. } forces at Marston Moor, he mainly contributed to  
the gaining of a signal victory. After an ineffectual attempt  
14th June } to treat with the royalists, the battle of Naseby fol-  
1645. } lowed, which completely ruined their military power.

The king afterwards sought refuge with the Scottish army, by whom he was given up to the English parliament.

7. The dispute between the presbyterians and independents came in 1647 to a crisis. The Commons, where the former predominated, voted that the army should be disbanded; but this body, chiefly consisting of independents, refused to comply, and formed committees of its own, who asserted an equality with the parliament. Some time was now spent in negotiations by the king with three parties—the parliament, the army, and the Scottish presbyterians. But one great source of the misfortunes of this monarch was a belief in which he indulged that princes were not bound, like ordinary mortals, to keep their word, unless in viewing the whole matter they thought fit to do so. This caused all treaties to be abortive; and at last the army, with Cromwell at their head, demanded that the parliament should be purged, as it was termed, and the king brought to justice. The purging of the 6th Dec. } parliament was performed by Colonel Pride, and  
1648. } consisted in excluding a certain number of members who were inimical to the army. Proceedings were now begun against the king by the remainder of the House of Commons; but the Lords, by failing to attend, neither approved of nor opposed them. Articles of accusation were made out, containing the history—told of course as much against the king as possible—of the events which have just been mentioned. A high court of justice was constituted to try him, and after, at all events, the appearance of deliberation, he was condemned to death. His execution—a lamentable event both to the friends of rational liberty, and to those who held the persons of kings to be something sacred—created the deepest sensation throughout the country, and, doubtless, but for the power of the army would have been prevented. He was beheaded on the 30th of January 1649, and met his fate with firmness and resignation.

8. THE REPUBLIC.—The parliament, which, after it had been purged of the presbyterian members, generally received the name of the Rump, was now supreme. Like all such bodies, when they have no head to direct and be in some measure responsible for their policy, it became very arbitrary and capricious. Every member found something to quarrel with, and readily got a number of others to join him in attacking it. Cromwell, meanwhile, found fields of warlike renown at a distance. Ireland was in a frightful state of anarchy and misery; and its fortresses were in the hands of the royalists. Cromwell proceeded to subdue the country

with his usual vigour and promptness, and with such severity as he had never dared to show in England. He next proceeded to Scotland, where many of the presbyterians had undertaken the cause of Charles II., and gaining a signal victory at Dunbar, ruined the cause of royalty in the north. There was still more important work for him at home. On the 30th September 1650, he defeated the last considerable muster of royalist forces in England at the battle of Worcester. Holding the high office of captain-general of the kingdom by appointment of parliament, he felt himself already a sort of military dictator. His troops began to interfere with the supremacy of parliament, demanding that it should be dissolved. The indignant members were passing a bill to make such demands treasonable, when Cromwell appeared at the head of a body of his musketeers, pulled the speaker from the chair, drove them from the house, and locked the door. Cromwell appointed a selected council to sit, which, from the unfortunate name of one of its members, was called Barebone's parliament; but this body, also becoming unmanageable, was dismissed. The council of officers at length declared the constitution which they would accept. Cromwell was to be Lord Protector of the kingdom, and to govern by a council and a parliament chosen triennially.

9. THE PROTECTORATE.—Cromwell had now all the power of a king—he might have obtained the dignity too, but he wisely did not seek it. His rule was in general absolute, and the parliaments which he called were treated with little respect. He was, however, essentially a wise governor, encouraging all who chose to live quietly, without too closely criticising their opinions, and making provision that justice should be strictly done between man and man. Even the episcopalian churchmen found him easy to deal with; and many of the royalists lived in safety and comfort so long as they did not plot against him. He projected many valuable improvements, such as a register of real property, and the shortening of law proceedings. He revived the old military glory of the country under Elizabeth. His fleets, commanded by Blake and Monk, swept the seas; and the powerful and despotic King of France sacrificed everything for an alliance with England. In his latter days especially, however, Cromwell led an uneasy life. He had many enemies, and perhaps his own conscience was among them; while the English people were discontented by being ruled, however ably, by one man. He died on 3d September 1658. Cromwell's son, Richard, appeared to succeed to the

protectorate as to a hereditary monarchy; but he had not the qualities of a governor, and his amiable disposition was better adapted for private life. He saw, and did not attempt to control, a decided movement throughout the country for the restoration of the royal family. This was aided by General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland. Cautiously moving his troops to the neighbourhood of London, he secured all the important posts in and around the capital, and then recalled the members who had been expelled by Colonel Pride in 1648. This body immediately convoked a new parliament composed of two chambers, according to the constitutional custom, and by them Charles II. was invited to return. He A. D. } entered London on the 29th of May, a day still com-  
1660. } memorated in the services of the English Church, and observed as a holiday in the public offices.

10. THE RESTORATION.—The reign of Charles II. presents few great incidents. He was received with such an outburst of joy as the grave English character seldom indulges in. His reign began with the punishment of those who were called the Regicides, as assenting to the death of his father, but he was not naturally vindictive, and the punishments were fewer than in such a reaction might have been expected. A new parliament was assembled on the 8th of May 1661, which had a longer life than that known by the name of the Long Parliament, for it lasted eighteen years. Episcopacy and the Anglican service were restored, and a considerable number of clergymen refusing to submit to this system of church government, vacated their livings, and formed a powerful centre of opposition to the measures of the monarchical and high church party.

Large supplies were liberally voted to the king, but he too soon showed that he looked on royalty as an enjoyment instead of a responsibility, and enormous sums were spent on follies. He sold Dunkirk, which had been ceded to Britain under Cromwell, for a sum of money. He engaged in a very unpopular war with the Dutch, who had generally been viewed as the natural allies of England. At the same time, though the resources of England must have been sufficient to overwhelm those of so small a state, the navy was so ill provided and commanded that the Dutch gained many successes, and on-  
11th June } tering the Thames, burned the shipping at Sheerness.  
1667. } The booming of their cannon was heard in London, while the king was amusing himself with his mistresses and idle courtiers.

The Earl of Clarendon, who was his prime minister, and who had perhaps failed sufficiently to check, but certainly had not

encouraged, these follies, was the first to suffer for them, and had to retire from office. A great reaction, however, took place both in parliament and elsewhere, and men's minds were  
 A. D. } excited to gloomy thoughts by a great plague which  
 1665. } raged in London and in other towns, succeeded by a fire which burned down a large portion of the metropolis.

11. In 1672, the king obtained a considerable sum of money by what was called shutting the Exchequer. It had been usual for the merchants and bankers of London to advance money on the security of the taxes; but their money was on this occasion retained, and they were not allowed to draw the taxes. This was done to obtain funds for a new war against Holland, still more unpopular than the last, in which Charles allied himself with the French king, and became his pensioner. As Charles's brother, the Duke of York and heir to the throne, was an avowed Roman-catholic, great fears were professed for the safety of the protestant religion. A bill for excluding him from the succession was urged, and a test-act was passed, requiring all persons in government employment to  
 A. D. } conform to the Church of England, which compelled  
 1673. } him to resign his offices. A dread of popery now began to be so prevalent in England, that some designing and profligate men turned it to their own purposes, and professed to discover and divulge a great plot for killing the king and exterminating protestantism. This imposition was chiefly arranged by two persons named Oates and Bedloe, but it was countenanced by the versatile and unscrupulous Shaftesbury. It caused frightful alarm, both on the part of the zealous protestants, who believed all its horrors, and the persons whose opinions laid them open to suspicion, and it caused the death of many innocent men.

In 1679, the long parliament of King Charles the Second's reign was dissolved, and a new one summoned, which was even less agreeable to the court. Among other popular measures it framed the celebrated Habeas Corpus act, for securing an immediate judicial investigation in the case of any person being arrested and imprisoned. This parliament did not last much more than a year, and another was called in 1680, not  
 10th Nov. } more obsequious. The Commons now passed the  
 1680. } exclusion bill, but it was rejected by the Lords. It was again proposed in the Lower House, but parliament was dissolved in the very midst of the debates on this important  
 March } constitutional question. This was the last parliament  
 1681. } in Charles's reign.

Charles, with the assistance of the King of France, now

governed as an absolute monarch. The country having been accustomed to constitutional rule, many men of ability and high position looked with melancholy forebodings to its future prospects. Several of these, among whom Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, and the younger Hampden, were conspicuous, formed an association to devise means for averting these dangers. It is difficult to say how far even the most moderate of them would have gone, but among their colleagues there were several who planned open insurrection. There was at the same time a plot by lower conspirators to assassinate the king, and the two schemes were artfully mixed up together. Russell and Sidney were tried and executed for treason, to the great grief of the nation, who in general knew their high principle and good intentions. Charles closed a reign which he could not well look back upon with satisfaction, 6th Feb. } by becoming reconciled to the Church of Rome, a  
1685. } few hours only before his death.

12. JAMES II.—Few kings received at their accession a more hearty welcome than James, the brother of Charles II. The beginning of his reign, however, was inauspicious. The Duke of Monmouth, who was a natural son of Charles II., was very popular, and romantic rumours were in circulation about a private marriage between the king and his mother. Seduced by vain expectations thus founded, he landed in the west, and was defeated at Sedgemoor. Argyle, who at the same time made an attempt to co-operate in Scotland, was equally unsuccessful. Had the misguided followers of these chiefs been mildly dealt with, the popularity of the new reign might have continued. But people saw with alarm that the poor insurgents, and all who were suspected of connivance with them, were treated with ferocious rigour. Jeffries, a man of low and brutal habits, but a great favourite with the king, who raised him to the highest legal honours, was sent to judge them, and he put so many to death that the assizes were called Jeffries' Campaign. The parliament, which showed unusual willingness to grant supplies, was startled by finding that the king was raising the money before it was granted, as if he were entitled to it by his prerogative.

The test-act, which excluded the members of his own religion from office, was naturally offensive to him; and as the king has the power of pardoning crimes and other breaches of the law, he endeavoured to extend the principle, by exempting Roman-catholics from the penalties incurred by them for holding offices without complying with the statute. He did this first in individual instances; but at last, on 7th April 1687, he

published a general declaration of indulgence, not applicable to any particular individuals or special offences, but exempting all persons whatever from penalties incurred by the test-act. This was equivalent to repealing an act of parliament by the king alone. Even the dissenters, who had suffered much from the act in the reign of Charles II., viewing it in this light, honestly declined to countenance it, or support the king in his projects.

13. That James did not desire mere toleration, but was about to re-establish the Church of Rome, and along with it to claim arbitrary power, like the kings of France and Spain, was soon made visible from other symptoms. A Court of Ecclesiastical Commission was appointed, with unlimited power over all matters connected with the clergy and the church, or with schools and colleges, and the unscrupulous Jeffries was placed at its head. The king began gradually to transfer the church benefices and offices in the universities to members of his own religious communion. In the first place, when people who held these turned catholic to please him, he exempted them from any penalty or deprivation. Going a step farther, he appointed Roman-catholics to vacancies. The university of Oxford had proclaimed the doctrine that the duty of subjects in all circumstances was a passive obedience to their sovereign's commands. To take advantage of a doctrine so agreeable to him, James ordered them to elect Anthony Farmer, a Roman-catholic, to the office of president of Magdalene College. They refused to do so, and nominated a person of their own choice; and on this the king condemned the fellows of the college to expulsion, and declared them incapable of holding benefices in the church.

A new declaration of indulgence was issued in April 1688. It had an appearance of extreme fairness and liberality, but it was accompanied by a condition which showed the king's despotic disposition. All the clergy were commanded to read it from their pulpits. Of those connected with London eighty-five resisted, and four only read the proclamation. Seven of the bishops presented to James an earnest but very deferential petition, pointing out the illegality of his course, which so provoked the king that he sent the bishops to the Tower. They were charged with a misdemeanour, and, after an exciting trial, were acquitted, amid the public rejoicings of the people.

An event occurred which in ordinary circumstances would have diffused great joy throughout the country, but in the existing state of affairs it produced suspicion and dismay. The



king had already two daughters; but on the 10th of June 1688 the queen bore him a son. It was remarked that the occurrence took place a month before the time when it might be expected, and that the Princess Anne, and others who should have been present, were not summoned. But what raised the chief suspicion was the foolish boasting of the Roman-catholics, who had predicted that a son should be born, and maintained that the boon had been granted for the sake of their church. It now became a general belief that no child had been born at all to the queen; and a story was invented of a warming-pan, containing a new-born child, having been brought into the royal apartments. From this it was that the exiled son of King James always received the name of the Pretender.

14. WILLIAM, PRINCE OF ORANGE, who was the nephew of James, and married to his daughter Mary, kept an eager eye on all that was passing in England. From his position as the supporter of the protestant interest abroad, he was naturally looked to by its friends in Great Britain. Several men of the first rank and influence, seeing that nothing but a civil war could be expected from the infatuation of the king, sent an invitation to the prince to come over. He was prepared for the call, and on the 5th of November 1688—the anniversary, as it was remarked, of the gunpowder plot—he landed at Torbay, at the head of an army not large but well disciplined. There were many Englishmen in his ranks, but his troops were chiefly foreign. The English never like the intrusion of foreigners in their domestic disputes; but James had reconciled them to their presence on this occasion by procuring for his own army a band of wild Irishmen from the distant provinces—all Roman-catholics, and as alien to the people of England as if they had come from Africa. After a few days of suspense, the aristocracy, with their followers, gathered round the prince. At length James, deserted even by his own nearest connexions, embarked for France on the 23d December, and William entered his deserted palace. There was no king to call a parliament in the usual form; but a number of gentlemen who had been in the last parliament of Charles II. met together, and calling themselves a Convention Parliament, declared that King James had vacated the throne, and offered it to the Prince and Princess of Orange. The offer was accompanied by a Declaration of Rights, condemnatory of the proceedings of the past reign. It was accepted on this condition, and thus the Revolution was completed.

## EXERCISES.

1. What was James the First's title to the throne? What religious party did he support? Give an account of the Gunpowder plot and its detection.

2. What was the character of James? How did the parliament act? What grievances did it get redressed? What violence did he employ towards parliament, and what effect had it? Who were his unworthy favourites?

3. With what auspicious appearances did Charles succeed? What were his defects? How did the Duke of Buckingham act? Describe his fate. How did the king collect money without the authority of parliament? What was the Petition of Rights? How did the king act towards parliament?

4. How was the treasury supplied in the absence of parliament? What was the tax called Ship money? Give an account of the difficulties of the king from the presbyterians in Scotland. How did King Charles find himself placed with the parliament summoned in April 1640?

5. When did the Long Parliament assemble? Who was the supporter of Charles that was first attacked? What measures were adopted against him? What were the charges on which he was impeached? How did the king act towards him? What dispute arose on ecclesiastical grounds? What unfortunate attempt did Charles make? Describe the nature of the change which now took place in the character of the parliamentary proceedings. Give a general view of the course of the war.

6. Who was Oliver Cromwell? What was the independent party? By what kind of feelings were they actuated? What body of troops was formed? What occurred at Marston Moor and Naseby? To whom did the king surrender?

7. What turn did the disputes between the presbyterians and independents take? With whom did the king negotiate? In what spirit did he do so? What was the purging of the parliament? Describe the circumstances in which Charles I. was put to death.

8. What course did the parliament pursue? What was the nature of Cromwell's proceedings in Ireland? What did he achieve in Scotland? Where did the royalists meet their last defeat? How did Cromwell treat the parliament? What was the new constitution created in its stead?

9. What was Cromwell's position? How did he exercise his power? Mention some of the improvements contemplated by him. How did he pass his latter days? When did he die? Give an account of his son. What general assisted in the Restoration?

10. What is the character of the reign of Charles II.? How was he received by the country? What was the conduct of parliament? What unpopular war was carried on? Mention Clarendon's conduct and fate. What circumstances increased the national gloom?

11. What plan did the king adopt for procuring money? Whence did fears arise as to the protestant succession? Give an account of the affair of the popish plot. What was the object of the Habeas Corpus act? What occurred as to the Exclusion bill? How did Charles govern after 1681? Give an account of the attempt of Russell and Sidney, and of their fate. In what faith did Charles die?

12. How was James II. received? What symptoms created alarm? How did he act as to supplies? Give an account of the Declaration of Indulgence. On what ground was it objected to?

13. What were the ultimate designs of James? What was the Court of Ecclesiastical Commission? How did he proceed as to church benefices? What occurred at Oxford? Give an account of the new declaration of indulgence, and the conduct of the bishops. What event connected with the king's family created suspicion?

14. What connexion had William, prince of Orange, with the royal family? How was he invited over? Where did he land? How had James reconciled the people to the intrusion of foreigners? Describe the manner in which the Revolution was accomplished.

## CHAPTER VII.

### FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE DEATH OF QUEEN ANNE, A. D. 1689—1714.

William III.—Whigs and Tories—Jacobite Rebellion in Scotland and Ireland—Victory off Cape La Hogue—Treaty of Ryswick—Triennial Act—Act of Settlement—Anne—War with France—Marlborough—Capture of Gibraltar—Occasional Conformity Bill—Union with Scotland—Sarah Jennings and Mrs Masham—Dr Sacheverel—Oxford and Bolingbroke—Treaty of Utrecht.

1. WILLIAM AND MARY.—The reign of William and Mary commenced on the 13th day of February 1689. The first duty of parliament, now that there was a king who could give the royal assent to its acts, was to pass the terms of their Declaration of Rights into a law; and thus it was rendered illegal for the king to have a standing army, or to dispense with the laws, or to levy money in any way without the consent of parliament. The parties into which the country was divided had been for some years called Whigs and Tories; the former being the supporters of popular government, the latter of monarchical principles. It was the whig party who had carried the Revolution, and they became somewhat zealous to monopolize its fruits, and especially to trample on the tories. But William was naturally of a cool and unimpassioned judgment, though of a resolute will. He looked at all political matters in their distant results, and he did not conceive that it would be to the advantage either of the country or himself to drive a powerful party to desperation. It was one of his immediate objects, therefore, to let the friends of the late government feel that they would not be pursued and punished; but he could not get the parliament to sympathize with him in these views. William was not a man of popular and conciliating manners. He was dry, reserved, and thought-

ful, and even the few whom he allowed to be intimate with him consisted entirely of his old Dutch friends. He had thus no party of enthusiastic personal supporters, even in the legislature; and from the experience which the House of Commons had dearly earned, they thought it well to keep a rigid check on the powers of the king. This they could do the better, as they had themselves raised him to the throne. Accordingly they looked into the sources of revenue, and refused to allow him such taxes as used to be given to former kings for life, retaining the power of voting them from year to year. At the same time they began the valuable practice of granting certain sums for particular purposes only, and thus keeping a control over the manner in which the public money was spent. They checked the slightest attempt to form a standing army, and compelled William to dismiss his Dutch guards.

2. The Revolution was quietly accepted in England. In Scotland the Highlanders rose under the impetuous Dundee, but the Jacobite cause was for a time suppressed by his death at the battle of Killiecrankie. In Ireland, whither some French troops had been sent, a more determined resistance was made; and William added to his military glory by his successes in there establishing the supremacy of the Revolution. Unfortunately, like almost every transaction between England and Ireland, it entailed a heavy charge of severity on the victorious party. It was natural that Louis XIV. should support the cause of legitimacy and catholicism. He levied 20,000 men for the invasion of England, and sent them over with a powerful fleet, under Admiral Tourville. On the 19th of April 1692, it was however encountered off Cape La Hogue by the English and Dutch fleets, under Admiral Russell, who dispersed it, and gained a signal victory. The warlike operations of the British and Dutch on the continent were respectable rather than brilliant, as the troops at the disposal of King William were but few in number. But in 1697, the war was concluded by the treaty of Ryswick, in which, among other conditions, France acknowledged the Revolution Settlement in England, and so terminated the hopes of the exiled family in that quarter.

Queen Mary, who has been charged with much want of feeling for her unfortunate father, was a gentle and good tempered woman, but with little decision of character. She died on 27th December 1694.

3. KING WILLIAM.—The condition on which William undertook the government was that, though his wife was queen, the active duties should devolve on him, and he should retain the

crown if he survived her. The Jacobites were perpetually plotting against him, and after his wife's death their machinations were still more to be dreaded. He found that there were very few people about him on whom he could absolutely depend—not even those who called themselves whigs, and therefore he did not throw himself entirely on their party, but sometimes selected his advisers from the Tories. In 1696, he discovered a plot for an insurrection, connected with a design to assassinate himself. This made a number of the members of the House of Commons rally round him, and form an association for his defence. Still the parliament pursued its system of jealous restrictions. Having seen the evils arising from parliaments of long duration, a bill passed both houses in 1693, to make them triennial, or of three years' duration only. The king refused his assent to it, and it is remarkable that this is the latest instance of the exercise of this part of the royal prerogative. The bill was passed again in the following year, and the king wisely yielded. William and Mary were childless, and in 1701, the last of the nineteen children of the Princess Anne had died. Under these circumstances, in order to preserve the good effects of the Revolution, it was necessary again to change the succession. An "Act of Settlement" for this purpose was passed in 1701; but the line of heirs which it introduced will be mentioned in the due course of our narrative. King William died, from the effects of a fall from his horse, on the 8th March 1702.

8th Mar. } 4. ANNE, who succeeded to the throne on the  
1702. } death of William, was the second daughter of James the Second, by his first wife, the daughter of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon. Her accession was peculiarly acceptable to both parties—the Whig and the Jacobite. The next heir was passed over in her favour, which was enough to satisfy the former; and she was of the Stewart family, and sister of the hereditary heir to the crown, which gave hope to the latter. As William had made arrangements with the northern courts for carrying on the war with France, it was feared that the change would greatly disturb the politics of Europe. The Dutch were in deep distress and alarm when they heard of the death of their own favourite monarch. It served in some measure to re-assure them, to learn that the first act of Queen Anne's reign was to confirm the alliances and carry on the continental projects of her predecessor.

This queen was the close personal friend of Sarah Jennings, the wife of Churchill the great Duke of Marlborough. Sarah exercised a remarkable influence over the queen, and this

appears to have smoothed the way to the continental alliances which gave her husband the opportunity of showing his wonderful military capacity. He displayed great talents for negotiation as well as for war. When despatched as Queen Anne's representative to Holland, though he only spent five days there, he arranged in that small country a warlike demonstration more remarkable than any that ever issued from the most powerful empires in the world. He agreed with the Austrian and Dutch governments that war should be declared against France, on one and the same day, in London, the Hague, and Vienna, and arranged that it should be begun both by land and sea. Marlborough was a man of great bravery, and at the same time extremely cautious and calculating. He did not waste or fatigue his troops in petty skirmishes, but spared them until a good opportunity offered, and then he threw his whole energies into the conflict, and swept all before him with overwhelming power. Thus he gained the memorable victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. They belong more to continental than to English history, for in reality they did not bring in the end much advantage or profit to this country. Another achievement, however, in this war, though less renowned at the time, became of considerable permanent importance. Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel were cruising with a fleet to watch the motions of the French. A sort of listlessness and disappointment was felt at the inactive character of the expedition, and in a council of war the admirals resolved to adopt the bold measure of attacking Gibraltar. A garrison prepared for an enemy could have resisted almost any force; but the Spaniards were taken by surprise, and capitulated, to the astonishment even of the invaders.

The accession of Queen Anne gave a great impulse to the tory party, and even to the Jacobites, who thought she would choose her own nearest relations for her successors rather than distant connexions. The parliament, which was sitting when King William died, was dissolved on the 2d of July. A new one assembled on the 20th of October, and immediately showed a disposition to repudiate the acts and opinions of the friends of the Revolution. They brought in the celebrated measure called a bill against Occasional Conformity. The meaning of this expression, which puzzles many readers of the history of the period, may be thus explained. The test-act of 1672 enacted that, to entitle individuals to hold certain offices, they should produce a certificate of having taken the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England. This statute

did not interfere any farther with their opinions or conduct. The taking of the sacrament for once, as a mere qualification for office, received the name of "Occasional Conformity." The bill brought in at the commencement of Queen Anne's reign was intended to prevent the occasional conformists from holding offices, by prohibiting all official persons from attending dissenting places of worship. After a long contest in both houses, the bill was lost. It was renewed, creating violent disputes, but was in the end defeated.

5. THE UNION.—One of the earliest objects of attention in Queen Anne's reign was the union of the two kingdoms—England and Scotland—not only under one monarch but one legislature. It had become absolutely necessary, in order to prevent a separation of the kingdoms and a war. The Scots were exasperated by the conduct of the English government in the matter of a company which they had formed for founding a colony at Darien, which being supposed to invade the trading privileges of the English, had been discountenanced and ruined. In the Scottish parliament, arrangements were made by an act of security, to which the queen found it necessary to give her assent, that the next heir to the crown of Scotland should be a different person from the heir to the crown of England, unless the nation obtained security for a participation in the commercial privileges of England. The Scots had shown a singularly fierce and hostile spirit. A vessel belonging to the Darien Company had been seized in the Thames for a breach of the privileges of the East India Company. It happened that a ship belonging to this latter body had at the same time anchored in the Frith of Forth, and in retaliation she was taken possession of by the officers of the Darien Company. But, not content with seizing the vessel, they charged the master and crew with piracy. Some of them were tried for their offence, condemned, and executed, more to show the independent power of the Scottish courts than because the men were really guilty. After such occurrences it was felt to be high time to cement the two nations together. In 1705, a body of commissioners was appointed by England and Scotland to prepare the articles of union. The treaty which they made provided that there should be one parliament and one government for the whole island, by which all national acts, such as declarations of war, treaties with foreign powers, and the like, were to be performed. Each nation, however, was to retain its peculiar laws and its religious establishment. The treaty was adopted by act of parliament in both countries, and the two became united as one kingdom on the 1st of May 1707. The

chief advantages of this great measure have accrued to Scotland; but England got rid of a troublesome and dangerous neighbour, while it obtained the services of an energetic, enterprising, and enlightened people.

6. Queen Anne was a well meaning woman, but weak and prejudiced. She was naturally inclined to favour her brother; but she was deterred from doing so by her strong attachment to the Church of England, which would not permit her to countenance popery. Among the parties by whom she was surrounded she preferred the tories, who were generally the friends of hereditary succession to the crown; and this partiality made the whigs sometimes afraid that she would be induced to give her aid to the restoration of her father's family to the throne. She was always, however, under the influence of some favourite. In her early years, as already mentioned, Sarah Jennings, the wife of the Duke of Marlborough, had acquired an immense ascendancy over her. Sarah was beautiful, haughty, and capricious; and any one who had seen her and the more homely looking queen together would have naturally taken her for the sovereign, and Anne for her humble attendant. The attachment grew so strong that the queen could seldom bear to be absent from her favourite; and in their familiarity they invented names for each other, the queen being called Mrs Morley, while Sarah was named Mrs Freeman. An individual from a humble quarter, however, undermined her influence. She had a distant connexion, named Abigail Hill, in extreme indigence, for whom she obtained a subordinate situation in the palace. Abigail, who has been better known from the name of her husband as Mrs Masham, was a clever, intriguing, and unscrupulous woman. She saw the weakness of the queen, and managed to worm herself gradually into her confidence. The haughty duchess was sitting in conversation with her majesty one day, when a private door suddenly opened, and Abigail tripped into the chamber in an easy familiar manner. Seeing the duchess, she stopped short, pretended that she thought the queen had called her, and slunk away. This was an indication to Sarah that her influence was waning. But it portended far more important changes. Mrs Masham had a relation, Robert Harley, who was in the counsels of the tory party. She secretly introduced him to the palace, and he had some conferences with the queen, in which he managed to undermine Marlborough, Godolphin, Somers, and the other members of the whig party, and pave the way for his own friends getting into power.

7. These private machinations were aided by some public



events. There was a clergyman named Sacheverel, zealous to extravagance in the cause of tory and high church principles, but at the same time vain and unscrupulous. Having to preach a sermon in St Paul's Cathedral before the Lord Mayor 5th Nov. } and the Corporation of London, he violently attacked 1709. } the principles of the Revolution and the existing ministry. The sermon was published, and sold in thousands to the tories and Jacobites. The party attacked, who had a majority in the House of Commons, were very indignant, and carried a resolution to impeach Sacheverel. This only served to raise his importance, and his cause became daily more popular. He was found guilty on the 20th of March 1710, by a majority of 68 to 52; but all the punishment awarded against him was a prohibition on preaching for three years, and the burning of his sermon by the common hangman. This lenient sentence was considered a great triumph, and celebrated by an immense procession through the city. Anne, thus backed 8th Aug. } and supported by the tory party, subjected her min- 1710. } isters to slights and impediments, and at last they were dismissed with much discourtesy.

The ministry were succeeded by high tories, including Harley, who was made Earl of Oxford, and Henry St John, who received the title of Bolingbroke. Harley was fond of literature, and collected a large library, but he was not a good man of business, being confused and often intoxicated. Bolingbroke was a man of greater genius, but of less principle. His eloquence was of the highest character, electrifying and delighting the House of Commons. He wrote with ease and brilliancy, and managed to enjoy his literary pursuits, and at the same time transact important business, in the midst of gaiety and profligacy. Though at first united, Oxford and Bolingbroke became afterwards the bitter rivals of each other.

8. TREATY OF UTRECHT.—One of the first acts of the ministry was to undermine the influence of the Duke of Marlborough by putting an end to the war. Some of his violent friends would have had him bring over the army he commanded, and support the influence of their party by the sword; but Marlborough was too prudent to entertain so dangerous a project. Negotiations were commenced with Louis XIV., which ended in the treaty of Utrecht, proclaimed on the 4th of May 1713. Philip, grandson of the King of France, was settled on the throne of Spain; while his rival Charles received Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and the Spanish Netherlands. Thus, important matters for the continental nations were brought to a settle-

ment, but Britain gained little by the treaty. She retained Gibraltar and Minorca, and obtained some privileges in North America. At the same time Louis XIV. agreed to abandon the cause of the Pretender, and support the protestant succession. Still the whigs complained, and with apparent reason, that these were small advantages to be derived from a long and glorious war. It was, however, answered on the other side, that the blame must lie with the original promoters of a conflict which in its own nature was not necessary or useful.

The dissenters were the great objects of dislike to the party who now enjoyed power; and several measures in parliament were levelled against them and the presbyterians of Scotland. The most conspicuous of these was called "An Act to prevent the Growth of Schism, and for the further Protection of the Churches of England and Ireland as by Law established." The object of this enactment was to render more effectual a law of the reign of Charles II., making it imperative on all teachers of youth to take a declaration of conformity to the Church of England. It required certain licenses from the church to qualify any man to be a teacher, and strictly prescribed the routine of religious instruction which each one was to adopt, subjecting them to penalties when they diverged from it. It passed so near to the end of the queen's reign that it never could be put in force.

9. In the year 1714, the Princess Sophia of Hanover died in the eighty-fourth year of her age. This was an event of considerable importance to the succession to the British crown, for she was the next heir according to the act of settlement. Anne had been early married to Prince George of Denmark. He was a quiet unassuming man, who did not meddle in state affairs, and who was indeed believed deficient in ability to do so. They had several children, but they all died in very early life. The death of the Duke of Gloucester, the last survivor, a fine boy of eleven years old, was not only a bitter dispensation to his mother, but a severe calamity to the nation, whom it compelled to look for a new dynasty to succeed to the crown. All the descendants of Charles I. were passed over, and the Princess Sophia was chosen, as being the daughter of Elizabeth, the sister of Charles I. and the wife of the Elector Palatine. On her death the succession fell to her son, the Elector of Hanover, who was not likely to succeed without dispute.

Some secret intrigues which were now in operation fostered the rivalry of Oxford and Bolingbroke into hatred, and embittered the latter days of the queen. The former, as the relation

of Mrs Masham, had first enjoyed the royal confidence; but Bolingbroke being better fitted to help the machinations of the artful favourite, thus superseded him. In fact, he and Mrs Masham conducted together a traitorous correspondence with the exiled prince, in pursuance of a plan for bringing him over as the successor of his sister. Such conduct was too common in that day. Even the great Marlborough himself, when professing to serve the interests of the protestant succession, was privily treating with the Pretender's party; and he made use of the secrets he thus obtained to injure its prospects. Many plots were hatching in the year 1714 by others as well as Bolingbroke, but they were not completed when the event which would have given them an opening occurred. The poor queen, harassed by these intrigues, by importunate requests to aid her brother's cause, and by the quarrels of her friends, died on 1st August 1714.

#### EXERCISES.

1. When did the reign of William and Mary commence? What did the declaration of rights render illegal? What parties was the country divided into? Describe William's character as a politician. What checks did the parliament insist on?

2. Where was there opposition to the Revolution? What great sea fight was gained? What was the character of the warlike operations on the continent? When did Queen Mary die?

3. On what conditions had William undertaken the government? What plots were laid against him? What association was formed? What was the triennial bill, and when did it pass? What is remarkable about the passing of this act? What arrangements were necessary as to the succession? When did William die?

4. How was the accession of Anne peculiarly acceptable? Describe the influence of Sarah Jennings. Who was her husband? What warlike combination did Marlborough accomplish? What battles did he gain? How was Gibraltar taken? What party got an impulse from the queen's accession? Describe the bill against Occasional Conformity.

5. What great measure obtained early attention in this reign? Describe the course of proceedings by which a union was rendered necessary for the preservation of peace. What arrangements were made for accomplishing it? What were the conditions of the Union? When did England and Scotland become one kingdom?

6. What was the queen's character? What fears were entertained as to her intentions? What continued to be the nature of her intercourse with the Duchess of Marlborough? Give an account of the manner in which the duchess was superseded. What was the effect of the change on politics?

7. Describe the character and conduct of Sacheverel. What steps were taken against him? What were their consequences? What were the effects of these events on the ministry? Who succeeded them? Give an account of Harley and St John.

8. What plan was taken to undermine Marlborough? What is the

date of the treaty of Utrecht? Give an account of the treaty. What was its effect so far as England was concerned? Describe the measures adopted against the dissenters.

9. Who died in the year 1714? Give an account of the connexion of the Hanover line with the Stewart family, and of the manner in which the succession was settled. What changes took place in the ministry, and how were they effected? What plots were hatching? When did Queen Anne die?

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## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE REIGN OF GEORGE I., A. D. 1714—1727.

**House of Brunswick: George I.—Whig Ministry—Impeachment of Lords Oxford and Bolingbroke—Scottish Insurrection—Rising in the North of England—Siege of Preston—South Sea Scheme—Walpole Administration—Sinking Fund.**

1. THE death of Queen Anne was a momentous event. Parliament had settled that the crown should devolve on a person at a distance, about whom the nation knew nothing. There was then but a very small standing army in the country—quite insufficient to keep down any general rising had there been one. It was reasonable that, in such circumstances, the most courageous man should be apprehensive of defeat, and that the prince who was to be brought from an obscure German principality to fill the mighty throne of the British Isles should feel hesitation and uncertainty. It was indeed a very nice question whether the new king would be able to mount the throne without a struggle. Bishop Atterbury, an ardent Jacobite, proposed at once to proclaim King James, and stand by the consequences. The ministers of the late queen were still hesitating whether they should adopt this course, when the Dukes of Argyle and Somerset stepped unexpectedly into the council-room, and demanded that King George should be immediately proclaimed. The adherents of the exiled prince did not dare to advocate his cause, and silently complied.

George of Hanover, who was born on the day before Charles II. made his entry into London at the Restoration, was fifty-four years old when he came to take possession of his throne. He had lived in the confined illiberal circle of a small German court, and had little or no idea of a constitutional government. He was in his nature reserved, surly, and repulsive. He had no sympathy with English habits, and did not know a word of

the language. On the whole, he was not calculated to be a popular prince, and he began his reign by yielding too abruptly to his prejudices.

The members of Queen Anne's government were immediately dismissed. The Duke of Marlborough was restored to the command of the army, and the Duke of Ormond, who was displaced from it, went and joined the Pretender, who kept up a small court in France, in the quiet town of St Germain's. The chief persons in the new ministry were Lord Townsend and Mr Stanhope. It was joined by Sir Robert Walpole, who, in the preceding reign, had been committed to the Tower on a charge of peculation, supposed to have been maliciously got up against him. But the whigs, not content with being replaced and triumphing over their opponents, wished to be revenged on them. Preparations were made for prosecuting several members of the late ministry. Bolingbroke, knowing himself guilty, fled, and became attached to the court of St Germain's, where he occupied himself in petty intrigues. Oxford, who was less culpable, remained to meet the charges against him. A committee of twenty persons, with Walpole as their chairman, was appointed to inspect the papers relative to the negotiations for peace. The house was scarcely prepared for the discoveries they were to make, and was startled by Walpole standing up, and impeaching Bolingbroke of high treason, while Lord Coningsby followed with a like charge against Oxford. In the end charges against the Duke of Ormond and the Earl of Strafford followed. Bolingbroke and Ormond having fled, were attainted, and their titles and estates became thus forfeited to the crown. Lord Oxford was now shunned by those who had formerly courted him, but he behaved with a tranquillity which did much to redeem his errors. He was committed to the Tower, and had to remain there two years, while his accusers were making preparation for his trial. The peers then held their august assembly for hearing the charge in the old hall of Westminster, and the Commons assembled to prove the articles before them. A dispute, however, arose between the two houses, and to this probably Oxford owed his safety.

2. INSURRECTION OF 1715.—Many of the Jacobite gentry, and especially the Highland chiefs, seeing that they were to be neglected and even oppressed, were ready to take the first opportunity to revolt. The Earl of Mar, who had been a secretary of state in the late ministry, offered his services in a most humble and devoted manner to the new king, but they were received with scorn. Mar, who was a selfish and

unprincipled man, immediately determined to rebel. In the disguise of a servant he proceeded to his estates among the mountains of the north of Scotland. There he proposed to hold a great hunting-match, and gathered round him a number of discontented chiefs and leaders, who resolved to raise the standard of rebellion. Mar had a very considerable army at his disposal, and he held the complete command of the greater part of Scotland for more than a year, until his force was broken at the battle of Sheriffmuir. The hopes of the Jacobites, however, were early damped by the death of Louis XIV. of France, to whom they had looked for countenance and aid. The Pretender himself, as the exiled prince was termed, resolved to proceed to Britain, and head the struggle for his restoration. He did not, however, enter England.

The Earl of Stair, a sagacious and persevering man, was the British ambassador at Paris, and notwithstanding the pains taken to deceive him, he discovered the plots that were in progress, and communicated them to the ministry. Thus, Sir William Windham, Sir John Packington, Lord Lansdowne, and some other leading Jacobites, were seized, and, very fortunately for themselves, prevented from joining in the rising.

3. In the north of England, the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr Foster collected a few followers, who assembled together on a hill called the Waterfalls. Here they were joined by a body of Scottish Jacobites from the border, and by a band of wild Highlanders under the command of Brigadier Macintosh. They marched southwards, by Kendal and Lancaster, towards Preston, in the expectation that many of the gentry and yeomen would join them, but in this they were grievously disappointed. General Wills was sent against them with a considerable body of men. He came up with them at Preston, where they had fortified the entrances and streets by barricades, which at first offered a pretty effectual resistance.

Wills, however, was joined by Carpenter, and a more serious attack commenced. Foster, who commanded the rebels, was a good-natured weak man, totally unfit for a part of so much danger and responsibility. He had completely neglected the proper precautions for discovering the position and strength of the enemy, and at a critical moment he was found intoxicated after a convivial dinner. The Highlanders, who were accustomed to savage clan warfare, in which the opponents neither gave nor asked quarter, were determined to fight to the last. Negotiations were opened, but they refused to take any part in them, declaring that they would cut their way out with their swords. On the 13th November 1715, the army

capitulated. Among the leaders who were now in the hands of the government were Mr Foster the commander, and the Lords Derwentwater, Widdrington, Nithsdale, Winton, Carnwath, Kenmure, and Nairn. The peers were brought to trial before their own House, and all of them, except Winton, received sentence of death. Nithsdale was saved by the dexterity of his lady, who supplied him with female apparel, and remained in the Tower in his stead. Mr Foster escaped from Newgate and reached the Continent in safety, while Macintosh and some others overpowered their keepers and broke loose. The other leaders were executed according to the horrible manner in which the treason laws are appointed to be enforced—some at Tyburn, and others at Preston and Manchester. So ended the insurrection of 1715.

4. THE CONVOCATION OF THE CHURCH.—These exciting events, and others which followed, have made historians overlook an important epoch in the history of the Church of England. A convocation or ecclesiastical parliament used to meet in each province, which was in Canterbury divided into two houses—the upper consisting of the bishops, and the lower of the ordinary clergy. Bishop Hoadley, who had written in favour of civil liberty and the Reformation, had excited the anger of the lower house of convocation, which had become unpopular by the support of opposite opinions. They were proceeding to take measures against Hoadley, when, in 1717, the convocation was adjourned by the government, and this assembly of the church has never been permitted to meet again.

The next important event was the South Sea Scheme. The company for trading in the South Seas offered to advance money to the government, then deeply in debt, and to stand in place of all the other creditors, provided they obtained certain trading privileges. To this the government agreed, and the celebrated and calamitous South Sea Scheme was formed. The chief mover in it was a Sir John Blunt, who laid his plans in such a manner as to take advantage of the selfishness and avarice of his fellow-countrymen. His company outbid all the others which held portions of the national debt, and bore the whole. As the means by which it could support this burden, it was to have great trading privileges. These were exaggerated to the public; and it was rumoured that Gibraltar and other places were to be given in exchange for districts in Peru and the other mining countries, where it was asserted that people could make their fortunes by finding quantities of gold, as in California at the present day.

The South Sea Scheme was brought forward with so much skill that the nation appeared to adopt it with a sort of universal insanity. Those who were original partners or shareholders in the company found that they could sell their privileges for much more than they paid for them. Thus, where a person held a share in the company amounting in value to a hundred pounds, many were ready to give a hundred and fifty, two hundred pounds, or more, to stand in his place. The mania went so far that a single share of a hundred pounds was actually sold for a thousand. Then a reaction took place. It was on the 8th of September 1720 that the stock began to fall; and from that time there was nothing but ruin and confusion among those who were so unfortunate as to be connected with the enterprise. In fact, whenever people became more eager to buy than to sell stock, all who had been so anxious to obtain it were now still more anxious to sell it at any sacrifice however severe. On the 29th of September, the stock had sunk to the value of a hundred and fifty pounds. It was found that many persons high in office had been concerned in the speculation, who had derived many advantages from the influence they had been able to use in favour of the measure; and stringent means were taken to prevent these parties from absconding. It was the misfortune of this South Sea Scheme that it spread ruin around by its bad example. London teemed with projects of all kinds, into which people who had any money to spare greedily entered without calculation. The most ridiculous speculations were proposed; and in some instances sums were raised for schemes the very names of which were kept secret even from those who risked their whole fortunes in them.

5. Many ministers of state were deeply implicated in the affair of the South Sea Company, and among these was Lord Sunderland, the first lord of the treasury. Walpole, who had been instrumental in retrieving the national calamity, was appointed to succeed him in 1721. He thus began the long reign of power which made him the most remarkable minister which Britain has ever possessed, with the exception perhaps of Lord Chatham. He was a man of great ability in financial affairs. He had learned the art of managing the House of Commons so well, that by his enemies he was charged with using bribery and other unscrupulous means of accomplishing his ends. He was personally a man of limited acquirements and coarse tastes. He had very poor ideas of political honesty, and used to boast that every member of parliament had his price, at which he could be brought to act as the prime min-



ister pleased. Thus, during his long administration, he did much to keep down all kinds of enthusiasm and public virtue. He preserved peace, however, both at home and abroad, for he always desired to conciliate rather than to exasperate his enemies. His reputation as an able financier gave people a reliance on the stability of the public credit which really made that credit secure. Seeing that the national debt was accumulating, he established an arrangement, which he called a sinking fund, for gradually paying it off; and although he did not diminish it to any great amount by these means, the very rumour of such a scheme removed any alarm which the creditors might have felt.

George the First naturally had an inclination to pay frequent visits to his German dominions, and when he did so it was the practice to establish a regency, consisting of the holders of the chief offices. While on one of these journeys to Hanover, he was seized with a sudden illness, of which he died on the 11th of June 1727, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

#### EXERCISES.

1. In what manner was the death of Queen Anne momentous? How did the Dukes of Argyle and Somerset act? Give an account of George I. What ministerial changes took place? What committee was appointed? Give an account of the measures adopted against Oxford, Bolingbroke, Ormond, and Strafford.

2. What course did the Jacobites adopt? What was the conduct of the Earl of Mar? What damped the hopes of the Jacobites? Who came over to Britain?

3. Describe the rising in the north of England. Give an account of the siege of Preston. What was the fate of the Jacobite leaders?

4. What was the Convocation? How was it virtually abolished? Describe the origin of the South Sea Scheme. Who was the chief mover in it? What plans were adopted for deceiving the public about it? Give an account of the downfall of the scheme.

5. Give an account of Walpole. What system did he introduce? How did he treat professions of political integrity? What good feature was there in his policy? For what branch of statesmanship had he a reputation? What was the system adopted when the king paid visits to his German dominions? When did George I. die?

## CHAPTER IX.

## THE REIGN OF GEORGE II., A. D. 1727—1760.

George II.—Disputes with Spain—Walpole's Excise Law—Spanish War—Anson—The Methodists—Rebellion of 1745—Battle of Prestonpans—Advance to Derby—Battle of Culloden—Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle—War in America—General Wolfe—Capture of Quebec—Minden—Naval War—India—Colonel Clive—Black Hole of Calcutta—Battle of Plassey—Extinction of French Power in India.

1. GEORGE II. succeeded to his father without opposition. His family had not yet become popular, but a feeling prevailed throughout the country that, provided the nation was governed in a quiet and orderly manner, it was of little consequence from what race the monarch was descended. George the Second entertained the design of displacing Walpole, but that minister exercised consummate art in keeping his place, by showing that no other person could transact the business of the country so well as he. It is believed, however, that the cause to which he chiefly owed his continuance in office was the large income which he agreed to settle upon the queen.

The public interest during the earlier years of George the Second's reign was principally directed to disputes with Spain. That country had not sunk into its present insignificance. It possessed the chief power in America; and the Spaniards being naturally a haughty and pompous people, when their official authorities met those of Britain in the colonies, they treated them as inferiors,—a kind of usage to which the inhabitants of this island cannot easily accommodate themselves. Many tales were told of insults and cruelties executed by Spanish colonial governors and commanders of vessels upon the English residents, and the nation was roused to a pitch of frenzy by pamphlets in which they were detailed. One of the main difficulties encountered by Sir Robert Walpole was thus in preserving the country from entering on a war which could have produced nothing but mischief.

He next turned his attention to the collection of the revenue, and while endeavouring to perform a useful service in this A. D. } department, he encountered a storm of unpopularity such  
1733. } as probably no other statesman ever incurred in Britain. He proposed to collect the revenue more effectively in duties

on a few principal articles of trade, and allow others to be imported free. This scheme was the greatest boon which Walpole in his long tenure of power conferred on his country; for though lost at first, its eminent utility was seen afterwards, and it was the very plan which is followed with so much success in this country at the present day.

The smugglers and other interested parties got up a report which was echoed through the whole country. It was represented that the liberties of Englishmen were about to be ruined for ever by a system which enabled the excise officer to enter any man's house, at any time, by day or by night, in search of contraband goods. A number of clever and factious writers drew frightful pictures of the slavery to which the country would be reduced by the new revenue laws. The general cry throughout the country became "liberty, property, and no excise." In fact, it was clear that to persist in the scheme would produce a rebellion, and Walpole abandoned it, saying, "I will not be the minister to enforce taxes at the price of blood."

2. The national desire for a war with Spain at last became so strong that Walpole could not resist it. He proposed to resign; but on the king pathetically praying that he would not desert him in his hour of need, he continued to hold  
 21st Oct. } office. War was at last declared amidst the most  
 1739. } extravagant rejoicings of the nation. Admiral Vernon, who was very popular, from his sailor-like boisterousness and his attacks on the minister in parliament, was appointed to command the expedition. He took from the Spaniards the small town of Portobello, near the isthmus of Darien, and this performance was hailed by the nation as one of the greatest warlike achievements on record. Commodore Anson was despatched to the South Seas, to co-operate with Vernon across the isthmus. There was, however, much mismanagement in the preparations for this expedition, and the minister did not entirely escape suspicion that he had intended it to fail. Some triumphs were achieved, and a considerable sum was taken from the enemy, but at an immense sacrifice of ships and men.

In February 1740, Mr Sandys moved for the removal of Sir Robert Walpole. The motion was then lost, but a new parliament assembled in the ensuing year decidedly hostile to the minister. In the meantime, mighty preparations had been made for conducting the war both by sea and land. A powerful expedition was despatched, consisting of a fleet under Vernon, and land forces commanded by General Wentworth.

The project was disastrous; and while the two commanders abused each other, the nation was nearly unanimous in laying the whole blame on the unpopular minister. At length he  
 11th Feb. } resigned, and was raised to the peerage with the  
 1742. } title of Earl of Orford. He was succeeded by his great rival Pulteney, who, from the height of popularity, soon became nearly as odious as his predecessor. He, too, was removed to the House of Lords under the title of Earl of Bath,—a measure said to have been devised by Walpole to make him unpopular.

3. THE METHODISTS.—It is to this period that we must attribute the origin of a body who, though scarcely ever mentioned in history, have exercised an important influence on the progress and opinions of the people of England: these are the Methodists. The origin of this peculiar name is obscure, and it is supposed to have been given accidentally. About the year 1730, John and Charles Wesley, who resided at Oxford, formed a little association for spiritual and religious improvement. Its members were noted for their strict opinions and rigid life. They maintained that the clergy of the Church of England were not sufficiently endowed with the same qualities; and the Wesleys, along with their friend Whitefield, undertook the duty of rousing the country at large to what they deemed a proper sense of these views. They addressed accumulating audiences with a fervour and enthusiasm very much at variance with the easy indifference of many established churchmen and the measured solemnity of some of the dissenters. It was not at first their object to separate themselves from the Church of England, but rather to labour within its pale. Their peculiarities, however, offended many of the clergy, who closed their pulpits against the young methodists. This drove them to address multitudes of the common people, frequently in the open air, and they were thus instrumental in infusing religion into savage and remote districts, where it was nearly as unknown as to the original inhabitants of Britain. It was in the year 1740 that the first methodist society was formed in a chapel in Moorfields, and in 1743 the rules which have long bound the community were drawn up. When John Wesley died in 1791, he left his followers a powerful body, who have since that time vastly increased.

A new cause of war arose by the death of the Emperor of Germany in 1740, when the Elector of Bavaria was, through the influence of France, created his successor. The emperor left a daughter, Maria Theresa, the queen of Hungary, who was exposed to the machinations of the surrounding princes,

especially of the King of Prussia, who began to encroach on her hereditary domains. In this war the battle of Dettingen was gained by George II., while the French were victorious over Cumberland at Fontenoy; but it has little concern with the proper history of England, and was ended by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

4. THE REBELLION.—The occupation of the British troops in foreign warfare gave occasion to events at home which placed the country in a state of imminent peril, independently of the immediate mischief which they produced. The French government thought it would be a good means of preventing England from sending armies to meet them on the continent were they to help the Jacobite cause, and so give our troops sufficient employment at home. With this view arrangements were made to send over an armament commanded by Marshal Saxe. The plan was discovered and defeated by the British admiral, Sir John Norris, who had a force under his orders sufficient entirely to crush that of France ere it could reach the coast. Had it succeeded in landing Marshal Saxe and his soldiers, it is difficult now to say what might have been the effect of such assistance to the discontented. But the people of England detest foreign invasion above all other things; and perhaps the adherents of the Jacobite cause would have been even fewer than they were had the French troops successfully disembarked on our shores.

Though deprived of the potent aid which he expected, the son of the exiled prince formed the romantic resolution of crossing over to Britain without an army, and trying his fortunes. This young man was the grandson of King James the Second, who had fled at the Revolution. His father, usually called the Pretender, on account of the common belief, already mentioned, that he was a spurious child, and not the son of James II. and his queen, was still alive, and held a mock court as the king of the British Islands. His son, Charles Edward, was probably induced to make his rash attempt by assurances that the country was tired of the reign of the Hanoverian family, and would gladly be free of it. People are very apt in such cases to believe that every other person partakes in their own discontents; and the agents of the Stewarts thus asserted that Britain was prepared for a revolution at a time when there is little doubt that, in England at least, the adherents of the Jacobite cause were very few. We not unreasonably wonder at the present day that it should have had any adherents at all. Fifty-seven years had passed since the dynasty was altered by the Revolution, and almost two gen-

erations had grown up who had not been the subjects of the direct Stewart line. A few of the country and patriot party had been in the practice of drinking Jacobite toasts at their hunting-dinners and other country convivialities, but even this was dying away. There had been Jacobite mobs, too, soon after the accession of George I.; but all these symptoms had been disappearing, and the landing of Prince Charles affected the country with extreme astonishment. In the end, the poor young man himself was not less surprised at the small amount of support he obtained, after the confident assurances that had been made to him.

5. The prince landed on one of the most wild and desolate spots of the north-western coast of Scotland—a place that, even with the rapid steam communication of the present day, is seldom visited, and which at that time must have appeared as remote and barbarous as Kamtschatka does now. If he had landed in England, his career might have been soon ended; but the Highlanders had no more real connexion with the government and institutions of the British empire than the modern Afghans, whom they much resembled. They had neither property nor industry. They did not cultivate the ground, or conduct manufacturing operations, and while the rest of the country had become peaceful, they preserved their weapons and their warlike habits. They followed the young adventurer at once, just as might have been expected of such a people. As his army increased in numbers he marched southwards, and got possession of the city of Edinburgh, the castle remaining in the hands of the government.

The adventurous narrative of this insurrection belongs rather to Scottish than to English history; but many of the troops encountered by the Highlanders were Englishmen, and the English general, Sir John Cope, was the person who was expected at once to suppress the outbreak. He was encountered by the prince's army, chiefly consisting of Highlanders, but with a few Lowland gentlemen and their followers, near the village of Prestonpans, about eight miles east of Edinburgh. The impetuous onset of the Highlanders, whose practice it was to fire off their muskets, throw them away, and then rush on indiscriminately with their broadswords, completely disconcerted Cope's army; and Europe was astonished to hear of highly disciplined British troops being routed by a wild horde of Highlanders, who could never have seen regular military operations. The prince was elated beyond measure with this victory, and in the brilliant present lost all consciousness of the sad future awaiting him. After he had held some gay

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assemblages in the old palace of Holyrood, it was resolved that the army should march into England. This was the determination of the prince himself and his foreign friends, who believed that the English squires and yeomanry would rally round him like the Highland chiefs and clansmen. His Scottish followers knew better, and dissuaded him from the attempt; but it was resolved on, and crossing the border, he entered Carlisle with much pomp on the 17th of November 1745.

Prince Charles was greatly mortified by his reception in England. The farther he penetrated southwards, the less cordial were the people towards his cause. The Highlanders were looked upon as savages by the English yeomen, and horrible stories became current among the peasantry of their being cannibals, and particularly fond of young English children. There was some Jacobite feeling in Lancashire; and Manchester, which was then an old-fashioned town with little manufacturing industry, supplied two hundred men, under the command of Colonel Townley. As the army marched farther south, however, the signs of support or indifference were changed to aversion. It was one of the most remarkable things in this extraordinary inroad that the Highlanders, though naturally of a wild and untrained character, and addicted to plunder the cattle of their Lowland neighbours, preserved the strictest military discipline, and left behind them none of the ordinary dreaded marks of an invading force.

6. If the troops at the command of the government had not been fighting for Hanover in the war of the Austrian succession, this attempt would have been nipped in the bud. But left to march forward without opposition, the young prince thought that he was not to be resisted, and that he might seize London as easily as he had taken Edinburgh. It is said, indeed, that the capital was in a panic, and that Pelham, duke of Newcastle, who was then secretary of state, shut himself up for a whole day when he heard that the rebels had entered Derby, and could be seen by no one, being uncertain whether he should adopt the government or the Jacobite cause. Really formidable preparations had, however, now been commenced. The Duke of Cumberland, the king's second son, was stationed at Lichfield, at the head of an army of above 10,000 men. Another considerable body of troops was moving from the direction of Yorkshire towards the insurgents; and the king himself, no mean soldier, had taken the command of his guards, which were encamped at Finchley Common, near London. The panic in the metropolis, and the sudden movement of the guards,

involved so many grotesque incidents, that the great painter Hogarth made the march to Finchley the subject of one of his most powerful pictures. Though the young prince himself did not seem to be aware of his danger, those who were about him perceived it distinctly enough. On their adventurous march they had proceeded as far as Derby, within 130 miles of the metropolis, when they made up their mind to go no further, but, if possible, to make good their retreat. When Charles was informed of their purpose, he received the communication with petulant indignation. Indeed during this attempt he had been for a while the spoiled child of fortune : he could not believe that he was really to be met by an enemy capable of effectively opposing him, and he attributed the caution of his best friends to timidity or treachery. Their views necessarily prevailed, however, and on the 6th of December the army began its retreat northwards.

7. The poor Highlanders, who thought they were going to win inexhaustible riches in the metropolis, and to surround the throne of a conquering prince, were nearly as much depressed as Charles himself when they began this unavoidable movement. They marched onwards, sullen and depressed, alarmed by rumours of pursuit, and occasionally subject to be harassed by the advanced parties of their enemy. On such occasions, however, they always showed their old warlike spirit. When the main body had reached Penrith, the rear-guard encountered a party of Cumberland's dragoons with resolution and military ardour, inflicting on them considerable loss. The rebel army after this affair passed comparatively unmolested into Scotland. It afterwards encountered the force under the command of General Hawley, near Falkirk; and again Europe was astonished to learn that disciplined troops, trained in foreign wars, had been broken and defeated by the wild assault of undisciplined barbarians. But this constant success, which served to give the prince an utterly false notion of his position, was doomed to be obliterated by one complete and final reverse. A large army advanced northwards under the command of the Duke of Cumberland, whose troops were prepared for the irregular method of warfare pursued by the Highlanders. They were instructed that all depended on steadiness at the beginning of the engagement, for their assailants gained or lost everything by the first furious onset, and if this was resisted they were at the mercy of disciplined troops. The prince held his court at Inverness. His army was ill prepared for a critical encounter; it was badly provided with the necessaries of life; and the chiefs and commanders



were on bad terms with each other, and giving vent to their animosity and petty jealousies. They might have encountered the approaching host at some of the difficult passages of its march, such as the crossing of the river Spey; or they might have taken up a position among the mountains, and at least have protracted the struggle. They were compelled, however, when hungry and exhausted, to meet the royal army on the 16th April } broad heathy plain of Culloden, where they could  
1746. } obtain no advantage from the nature of the ground.

The duke had his foremost ranks supported by abundant reserves, and it was soon seen that all his precautions were necessary, for the fierce onset of the Highlanders at first shook and drove in the line against which it was directed. But the troops remaining steady, poured upon the undisciplined masses a destructive fire, which mowed them down with deadly rapidity. A woful flight was the speedy result; and the royal duke who gained the victory stained its lustre by the extraordinary barbarity with which he hunted the fugitives and desolated the country around.

8. Prince Charles, after leading a wandering life, characterized by intense hardships and marvellous escapes, landed in France a broken-hearted man, and having to leave that country, he spent the remainder of his days in Italy in idleness and intemperance. The English people, who had suffered but little from this rebellion, had their interest excited after its suppression by the punishments inflicted on its chief instigators. The august tribunal of the House of Lords again met for the trial of those offenders who held the rank of peers, and the Lords Kilmarnock, Balmerino, and Lovat, were beheaded on Tower Hill—the last who suffered in this country by the axe, which has always been held to be the most dignified mode of punishment. Kilmarnock was a modest gentleman of enthusiastic principles, who in the end bitterly felt how far his enthusiasm had misled him. Balmerino, bold, resolute, and defying to the last, interested even his enemies by the courage with which he braved his fate. Lovat was a crafty and unprincipled man, who had tried in his day to serve all parties, and to betray each of them as it might suit his purpose; and in the tragic end of his many schemes, he was a remarkable instance how even the greatest cunning may overreach itself, and bring ruin on its possessor. Seventeen leaders of inferior rank suffered on Kennington Common the horrible punishment attached to treason. Nine were executed at Carlisle, and eleven at York. Disastrous as this insurrection was, it proved not entirely unproductive of good. The English people found it necessary to know a little

more about the condition of the wild Celtic race who inhabited the same island with themselves. Measures were consequently adopted for relieving them from the tyranny of those chiefs for whose ambitious objects they had been excited to rebel, and England and Scotland became more closely amalgamated together.

7th Oct. } 9. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which brought the  
1748. } contending continental powers to an understanding, was not very satisfactory in England. Indeed it has been but seldom that, however tired of war, the people of England have welcomed a peace, for as they have been generally in the habit of exaggerating their own successes and their opponents' reverses, they have consequently looked on whatever conditions they might obtain as disadvantageous. By this treaty all conquests on either side were to be restored. The British had obtained Cape Breton, in North America, an acquisition deemed of much importance, and it was very mortifying to the nation to be required to give hostages for its restoration to France. Both in America and in the East Indies the great rivalry between the French and English powers had now fairly begun; and as no pains had been taken to point out in the treaty the limits of each nation's possessions in these distant regions, there were unceasing disputes and aggressions. Among other causes of contention, the French, maintaining that they had first discovered the mouth of the Mississippi, claimed the vast territory on both sides, and drove out some English settlers who had taken up their abode in that prolific wilderness. Thus the remaining years of the reign of George II. were conspicuous for a succession of warlike operations in which the British arms were successful throughout the globe. In 1755, four separate expeditions were sent to America. Colonel Monkton was to protect Nova Scotia from French incursions; General Johnson was sent to reduce Crown Point; another force under General Shirley was directed against the Niagara Forts; and the intrepid Braddock was instructed to attack the French Fort Duquesne. This leader, though he conducted his operations with great bravery, suffered a defeat from a cause very like that which operated against Cope and Hawley in Scotland. He was not acquainted with Indian warfare, which is chiefly conducted by surprises and sudden attacks, where everything is carried at once, or the assailants are resisted and exterminated. Thus he was within ten miles of his destination, marching through a forest where all was quiet, and no sign of hostility seemed near, when on a sudden a murderous fire was opened on his troops. He tried in vain

to meet this onslaught by the rules of strict discipline—his men, the better they kept together, were only the surer marks for their unseen enemies. At length Braddock himself was shot dead, and his remaining troops took to flight. In these and some other affairs the British learned that the rigid rules of modern discipline would not suit every description of warfare.

10. Next year the war in America was commenced with renewed vigour, under the influence of the celebrated William Pitt, whose accession to the English ministry was an event felt in every quarter of the world. The first great object of the expedition was the reduction of Louisburg and the island of Cape Breton. For this purpose a large armament under General Amherst and Admiral Boscawen left the harbour of Halifax, in Nova Scotia, on the 28th of May 1758. The garrison of Louisburg, under the command of the Chevalier Dracour, were well prepared for resistance, and capable of applying their means to good use. But the united land and sea forces conducted their attacks with so much vigour, and co-operated so heartily with each other, that point after point was forced; and the brave French commander, at the solicitation of the citizens, who dreaded a threatened assault, was obliged to capitulate unconditionally. Two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon with eighteen mortars were found within this important fortress, the possession of which gave the British the command of Cape Breton. This achievement, though followed by others still more brilliant, is important as the turning point of the events which transferred the whole French empire in America to Britain. It was followed by the destruction of Fort Frontenac, and the capture by General Forbes of Fort Duquesne, the possession of which was of great moment, as it commanded a vast line of country, and overawed the Indian tribes, who now found it for their interest to make alliances with the new and formidable conquerors. The place was afterwards named Pittsburg, in compliment to the minister under whose auspices it was taken.

GENERAL WOLFE.—These victories were followed by other successes; but one great feat still remained to be performed, to establish the British supremacy in the Canadian provinces—the reduction of Quebec on the river St Lawrence. The governor of this strongly fortified place was Montcalm, one of the first generals of his age, who had ample resources of all kinds at his disposal. A squadron was despatched under Admiral Saunders, containing 8000 land troops commanded by the celebrated General Wolfe, a young officer who had

raised himself to this high rank through his intrepid conduct in the other American conflicts. The town of Quebec consists of two parts, the upper and the lower. The former is on a flat or table-land at the top of abrupt rocky heights, easily defensible if assailed, and on this flat was a strong citadel. Wolfe conducted his operations in the usual manner from the plains below; but he was obliged to confess that, from the advantageous position of the garrison, he made very little progress, and he feared that, if the capture were accomplished at all, it must be a work of time. In these circumstances he conceived the intrepid idea of scaling the heights which separated the upper from the lower plain, and thus placing his troops on the same level with the garrison. This was a feat which could only be accomplished because the enemy, believing it too daring to be contemplated, were not prepared to frustrate it. In the night-time the attempt was made. Here the Highlanders showed how much more advantageous it was to secure their services by encouragement than to arouse their enmity by neglect and scorn. Climbing the craggy eminence noiselessly and swiftly was to them a congenial service to which their habits were familiar. Fortunately they encountered but little resistance; and when a few reached the summit, they formed in order 17th Sept. } and protected the ascent of the rest. When Mont-  
1759. } calm learned that the heights had been gained, he resolved to put the affair to the issue of a battle on the elevated flat, instead of standing a protracted siege. It was fought with great fury. Both commanders were killed; and Wolfe expired just as he heard the shout that the enemy had taken to flight. The gaining of the battle was equivalent to the capture of the fort and city. A vigorous effort was immediately made to recover it, but it was effectually baffled. This important acquisition led speedily to the reduction of the whole province of Canada, which has now remained for nearly a century a British possession.

11. MINDEN.—The accession of William Pitt to the ministry was, however, the signal for conducting warlike operations on a still larger scale in other parts of the world. He had not been long appointed secretary of state when he alarmed the House of Commons by a startling exposition of the state of Europe, where France and Austria, he said, were combining together to appropriate his majesty's dominions of Hanover, along with those of his ally the King of Prussia, and called upon the house for aid to defeat these machinations. He again brought the same views forward with still more fervour and decision in the ensuing year; and the warlike spirit having

been fostered by success, supplies were granted, and troops sent to the continent. Lord George Sackville, who was very popular in England, and believed to be one of the first military men of his age, was sent to command the British troops in this war. The Prince Ferdinand was his superior officer; and in 1st Aug. } a general engagement with the French at Minden, 1759. } a misunderstanding arose, and Lord George was charged with having failed to obey the orders of the prince. He was tried by a court-martial, and the whole affair created intense excitement. Lord George maintained that the orders he received from the prince were unintelligible; and there was a general belief throughout England, when he was convicted by the court-martial, and declared unfit to serve in any military capacity, that he was made a victim to the aristocratic prejudices of the house of Hanover, which insisted on supporting the German prince against an English lord, even when the latter was in the right. Lord George was a man of great ability. He was naturally much soured by the treatment he received; and, as he was haughty and sarcastic, many rumours were current about his conduct and peculiarities. Among other statements regarding him, it was confidently maintained that he was the author of the celebrated Letters of Junius. Notwithstanding the dispute on the field of Minden, it proved a distinguished victory over the French, and was the most remarkable battle of that campaign. The subsequent conflicts, indeed, were rather unfortunate to the British and their allies; and the country learned that fighting battles on the continent to serve other powers was very little to her advantage. This was felt all the more when it was seen that Britain had not only sent her best troops to fight these battles, but had provided money, contributed from the industry and economy of her people, to enable the impoverished monarchs of the continent to increase their dominions, under the pretence of keeping up a balance of power.

12. NAVAL WAR.—The naval operations of Britain towards the termination of George the Second's reign were in general brilliant and effective. The series commenced, however, with an affair which was in many respects very melancholy. In 1756, a French squadron was fitted out at Toulon, on an unusually ample scale, and with superior attention to all the details of a naval armament. It was known from the short period for which it was victualled that it was not destined for America, or any of the distant regions in which the French and English were at war, but that it must be directed against Gibraltar or Minorca. The latter was its destination. To encounter this

large armament, a fleet was prepared in England and put under the command of Admiral Byng, who was believed to be a precise and well-meaning naval officer, but not a man of sufficient firmness and resources for high command. Approaching Minorca, he encountered the French fleet, and a general engagement began. The usual way in which naval battles have been conducted by English admirals has been by impetuous attacks, generally breaking through the enemy's line. They have pursued this policy, not in rashness, but in a supreme reliance on their own skill to guide such bold operations, and in the ability of British seamen to execute them. Admiral Byng was incapable of such decisive acts. Some confusion was created in his line by one of the ships getting disabled and falling back upon the rest; and he was more occupied in keeping the line of vessels trim and neat than in destroying his enemy. When the captain of his own vessel begged him to bring it down upon the enemy and come to close quarters with them, he said he would not break his line. If he was reluctant to come to a close engagement, however, his adversaries were still more so. The French admiral, Gallissonière, in fact, though he had a larger and better provided force, sailed away, and Byng's fleet made a slight effort to give chase. The garrison of Minorca, however, who expected to be relieved by the victorious fleet of Byng, had the mortification to see that of France approach the island little injured, and fire a salute as for a victory. If any one gained the victory it was Byng; but it had already begun to be an opinion, that when a British admiral met a foreign fleet he must annihilate it, even if it were somewhat larger than his own. Minorca was in the meantime subdued by the French; but the subsequent proceedings as to Admiral Byng were a far greater scandal to England than the loss of any foreign possession. He was brought home in custody and tried before a court-martial, by which he was found guilty of not doing his utmost to take, seize, and destroy the ships of the enemy, and in virtue of the strict letter of the law condemned to death. It is well known that his expedition was ill provided, and it is generally believed that those who had failed to do their duty in the outfit allowed him to be made the victim of their culpable negligence. The admiral was actually shot as a criminal on board a man-of-war at Portsmouth; and Voltaire, the great French author, in one of his amusing descriptions, represented the British people killing an admiral for the encouragement of others, because he had not gained a sufficient victory over a superior force.

13. The distressing events connected with Admiral Byng occurred before Pitt had infused his vigorous spirit into the warlike operations of Britain. From this time may be dated the rise, or rather the revival, of the naval victories which astonished and awed the world. Three British admirals of renown—Rodney, Boscawen, and Hawke—were in the year 1759 engaged in attacking the French and their allies in various seas, and with great effect, not only from their own high abilities, but the superior manner in which the armaments commanded by them had been fitted out. Rodney performed a gallant but somewhat cruel act in bombarding Havre, where the chief slaughter was among the families of the peaceful citizens. Hawke achieved a more important triumph near Quiberon, on the coast of France. Admiral Conflans had sailed out of Brest harbour with a fleet of twenty-one ships. He had not crept far along the coast, when Hawke's fleet appeared, and he determined to give battle. This combat was considered an example of what the British expected from their naval commanders. Hawke not only fought near a difficult rocky shore, where the highest seamanship alone could keep his ships from being injured, but though a furious storm came on, he continued the battle through the darkness of the night, and 20th Nov. } inflicted a fatal blow on the French marine, which 1759. } made that country for some time cautious in sending out naval expeditions. The maritime operations in the West Indies and other distant quarters were followed by results which were considered still more substantial. Indeed, Britain had at that time, from the greatness of her naval force and the high character of the men who were its leaders, the command of every sea in which her vessels appeared.

14. INDIA.—The British empire in the East has been one of the most remarkable creations of modern times; and as it assumed its present form, and acquired its peculiar importance in the history of the world, during the latter years of the reign of George II., the present may be a proper period for giving a general sketch of its origin and progress. The English East India Company was formed in London in the year 1599, when a sum of thirty thousand pounds was subscribed by certain adventurers, in the same manner as the funds for conducting railways, banks, and other joint-stock companies are raised at the present day. The adventurers were incorporated by royal charter, with the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading with the East Indies." The charter was renewed from time to time, and for a long period those who acted under it were merely traders. The native

princes found it advantageous to give privileges to persons who carried on important commercial operations—who sold the produce of Europe to their subjects, and purchased the commodities which their dominions supplied, and hence they were invited to form establishments on convenient spots, which received the name of factories. Their operations extended so far, and brought together so many people, that it was necessary to have some sort of law and government among them. Instead, however, of supplying this deficiency, by the appointment of judges and other civil officers, the English government in 1624 gave the company authority to furnish its own public officers. The native inhabitants were a docile peaceful race, willing to trade with the company, to allow them any privileges they desired, and give them aid and co-operation. But they were liable to be attacked and subjugated by the neighbouring Mohammedan princes, or by other leaders of warlike and rapacious races. When so oppressed they often appealed to the English for protection. Many of the adventurers were unscrupulous enough, but still they were not such selfish tyrants as the eastern invaders, and the natives preferred them as masters. The opportunity of thus acquiring power and affluence was one which no set of men could have resisted. As their position compelled them to fight with some of the oppressive princes and their followers, in 1661 the company obtained a license to make peace or war with any princes or people “not being Christians.” About the beginning of the eighteenth century the chief centre of the British authority in India was fixed at Calcutta, and by treaties and conflicts with the surrounding chiefs, it gradually resembled the capital of an independent country. In reality the privilege which the English obtained was no better than that of collecting taxes or rents; while some native or other eastern chief held the nominal sovereignty, the authority of the traders became every day stronger and more extensive.

But the French were not disposed to leave this rich field of adventure entirely at the disposal of their rivals. They had established an East India Company on a large scale, and fixed the centre of their operations in the town of Pondicherry. It was the policy of the two companies to outbid each other for the alliances of the native princes, and for obtaining privileges from them on the best terms. The possession of these eastern thrones was seldom undisputed. Some competitor was always ready to commit any violence or crime to drive out the existing occupant, and take his place. One of the companies would offer its services to such a claimant, and agree to elevate him



to the throne, provided that on his accession he conferred on them certain lucrative privileges within his territory. In this manner the successful competitor often found that he had a mere nominal authority. Such proceedings naturally created perpetual wars, in which the companies were engaged sometimes with the native chiefs, and sometimes with each other. While the English were chiefly devoted to commerce, the French were more gorgeous in their tastes, and surrounded themselves with more military pomp and parade—qualifications which enhanced them in the eyes of the oriental princes. Thus, in 1749, Dupleix, the French director-general, a man of great ability, and who knew well the character of the eastern races, adopted the cause of two claimants—Mirzapha Jung, seeking to be viceroy of the Deccan, and Chunda Saheb, to be nabob of the Carnatic, dispossessing the existing occupants. He succeeded in the former in opposition to the English, and was appointed governor of a large portion of the Mogul dominions. The nabobship of the Carnatic was more seriously disputed by the English, who had their own candidate, Mohammed Ali Khan. A young man of the name of Robert Clive had been sent out as one of the company's civil servants in India. It was then a fine field for daring spirits; and Clive, finding that he had other talents besides those adapted to the desk, obtained a commission in the military force of the company, where, by his skill and courage, he soon rose to high distinction. He was sent at the head of a body of troops to help the cause of Mohammed, and by rapid and daring operations seized Arcot and beat off Dupleix. Thus the Indians to their amazement saw the merchant's clerk baffle the haughty military commander in conflict after conflict, and they began to have a better opinion of their trading friends, whose credit had fallen before the lustre of the French armaments. The French candidate for the nabobship, to encourage his patrons, professed to make a grant to Dupleix of all the English possessions to the northwards of Pondicherry. But before this was acted on, and the war between the two companies resumed on an extended scale, a truce was established until each party should receive instructions and reinforcements from home.

15. But events occurred in another quarter which altered the aspect of the history of the Eastern Peninsula. Aliverdy Khan, the Subahdar of Bengal, a prince of great power, died in 1756, and was succeeded by his adopted son, Surajah Dowlah. The old prince on his deathbed, having great misgivings as to the capacity of his successor, whom he believed to be weak

and profligate, gave him a solemn admonition when he felt his life drawing to a close. In the first place, he compelled him to swear on the Koran that he would never taste intoxicating liquor, a vow which he strictly observed. The dying subahdar then told him that he had seen with alarm the progress of the Europeans. Formerly there was great danger from the power of rival princes, but now that was comparatively thrown in the shade by the new and increasing danger. He bade him look well to the English—theirs was the real power; once exterminate them, and the rest would soon follow. Governed by this counsel as a religious obligation, the new subahdar appeared suddenly with a large force before Calcutta, and summoned it to surrender. Mr Holwell, who acted as governor, offered a brave resistance, but he found it a vain attempt, and surrendered on a promise of protection. A memorable event now ensued. Within the fort there was a stone dungeon, eighteen feet square, ever afterwards known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Into this cell or box the garrison, consisting of 146 persons, was thrust. It was equivalent to subjecting them to the most horrible of deaths—a gradual choking from an imperfect supply of air. Next morning only twenty-three were found breathing, and these had but a flickering spark of life remaining in them. The subahdar felt an exulting pride when he contemplated the results of his cruelty, and believed that he had now effectually rid his dominions of the troublesome Europeans.

16. Perhaps but for this act of treachery and inhumanity our Indian empire would never have been what it is. Every English heart throbbed with indignation, and the news had but just reached Madras when, with unprecedented alacrity, a strong force under the command of Clive and Watson was sent to Calcutta, which was invested and speedily retaken, along with Hoogly, on the Ganges, where the subahdar kept his principal magazines. He assembled a considerable army, which was repulsed, and on the 9th of February 1757, he consented to articles of peace very favourable to the company. But the subahdar was the partisan of the French; and as the British proceeded to attack their fortress of Chandernagore, disputes again broke out, and it was evident that there would be little safety to the company unless the treacherous and cruel rajah were deposed. A competitor appeared in the person of Meer Jaffier, who was the brother-in-law of the previous subahdar, and with such pretensions was not safe from the jealous cruelty of his successor, who had indeed vowed that he would have Meer Jaffier's head. At his invitation

Clive marched with the whole force he could muster—about three thousand men—towards Moorshedabad. At Plassey he found the subahdar encamped with an army of seventy thousand men, magnificently accoutred, and with their elephants and coloured tents displaying all the terrors and grandeur of oriental warfare. Yet, such was the reliance of the merchant's clerk on his little band of daring men that he did not hesitate to attack this vast army, which dissolved before him, scarcely striking a blow. Surajah Dowlah fled, and was afterwards slain. Meer Jaffier, though he had given no assistance to the English, and had indeed showed signs of treachery, was acknowledged his successor, care being of course taken that he should give up a large portion of the power and wealth of his government to those who had been so instrumental in placing him in it. To understand fully the nature of these changes, it must be understood that neither of these chiefs belonged to the Hindoo tribes over which they ruled. They were descended from the Mohammedan conquerors, who were as much strangers to them as the British, who thus did not subdue the Hindoos, properly speaking, but merely displaced their subduers.

17. But while this revolution was going on in the northern part of India, the French took the opportunity of the troops being withdrawn to weaken the power of the English on the coast of Coromandel. They had received large reinforcements from Europe, and were commanded by M. Lally, a gentleman of Irish descent, proud, capricious, and hasty. He had some brilliant qualities that suited well to overawe the oriental tribes, but he did not possess sufficient vigilance and perseverance to deal with opponents like the British. Lally marched into the dominions of the Rajah of Tanjore, one of the most effective allies of the company; but with the assistance of a few English, the rajah defended his capital, and compelled the invaders to retreat. He, however, drove the other British ally, Mohammed Ali Khan, out of Arcot. He next proceeded to besiege the English town of Madras, and thus made the war one of extermination. It was now clear that either the English or the French were to be supreme and unrivalled in A.D. } India. Assistance coming from Britain, Lally was ob-  
1759. } liged in bitter mortification to give up the attempt. Salibut-Jung, the subahdar of the Deccan, supported by the French interest, now saw that the tide was turning, and, abandoning his former patrons, entered into an alliance with the British. Several conflicts took place, in almost all of which the French were the sufferers, and they were defeated with

A.D. } great loss by Colonel Coote in a general engagement  
 1760. } near Wandewash. Lally now retreated on the capital  
 of the French dominions in India—Pondicherry. It was in-  
 vested, however, by Colonel Coote, on the land side, and by a  
 squadron towards the sea. Provisions failed, while the invest-  
 ment was strictly kept up, and at length Lally, his proud  
 15th Jan. } spirit subdued by an unvaried series of misfortunes,  
 1761. } was obliged to surrender. Thus was the French  
 authority in India, just as it appeared on the eve of becoming  
 supreme, so shaken that it never again effectually competed  
 with that of Britain.

Just before this crowning event of the war, but some time  
 ere the news of it reached Britain, a new monarch had as-  
 cended the throne. After having witnessed an unexampled  
 series of successes, George II. died suddenly, on 25th October  
 1760.

## EXERCISES.

1. How is Walpole supposed to have retained his influence? What  
 occupied public interest in the early part of the reign? Describe the  
 public feeling towards Spain. What defects did Walpole endeavour to  
 cure in the collection of the revenue? What plan did he propose? How  
 was it received? How did Walpole act on the occasion?

2. What event was hailed with joy? Who was Vernon? What ex-  
 pedition was he sent on? What did it accomplish? What motion did  
 Mr Sandys make? What unsuccessful expedition was carried on?  
 Who was blamed for it? What change of ministry took place?

3. What was the name of the religious body which arose at this time?  
 Who were Whitefield and the Wesleys? Give an account of the rise  
 and progress of the Methodists. What new war arose?

4. What gave occasion to the rebellion? What were the designs of  
 France? How were they defeated? Describe generally the state and  
 feeling of the country so far as the Jacobites and the interests of the  
 exiled family were concerned.

5. Describe the prince's landing. How were the Highlanders pecu-  
 liarly adapted to aid him? What acquisitions did the prince make?  
 What was Sir John Cope's position? Give an account of the battle of  
 Prestonpans. What was the next step taken by the prince? What  
 ideas had the English formed of the Highlanders? Describe their march  
 through England.

6. What hopes were held by the prince? What was said of the Duke  
 of Newcastle? Describe the preparations made by government for the  
 suppression of the insurrection. What dispute occurred between the  
 prince and his followers? Where did the army stop and commence its  
 retreat?

7. What effect had the retreat on the Jacobite army? What occurred  
 at Penrith? How was Hawley defeated? What was the proper way  
 of fighting with the Highlanders? What alternatives had their army  
 before the battle of Culloden? Give an account of the battle of Cul-  
 loden.

8. What was the subsequent fate of the prince? Who were tried by the House of Lords? What were the characters of Kilmarnock, Balmerino, and Lovat? What severities were exercised? What advantages flowed from events connected with the rebellion?

9. How was the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle received? How did hostilities break out again? What expeditions were sent out in 1755? What calamity befell Braddock?

10. Whose influence infused vigour into the war? What was the first great object of the expedition to America? Describe the capture of Louisburg. What made this acquisition important? What operations followed it? What important place still remained to be captured? Describe Quebec and the peculiarities which protected it from an attack. Give an account of the battle of Quebec. What did it lead to?

11. Describe the manner in which William Pitt created a national enthusiasm for war. Give an account of Lord George Sackville's conduct at the battle of Minden, and its consequences. What was the feeling of the English people as to the continental wars?

12. What naval battle took place in the year 1756? Give an account of the battle fought by Admiral Byng. How was it that his conduct fell short of the expectations which the British formed of their naval commanders? What was Byng's fate? What remark did Voltaire make on it?

13. Mention three British admirals of great renown at this period. What achievements did they perform? What was the effect on the naval power of France?

14. Give an account of the origin of the East India Company, and its progress down to the beginning of the eighteenth century. How did a rivalry grow up with another nation seeking power in the East? Who was Dupleix? Give an account of Clive. What rivalries among the oriental chiefs gave the British and French opportunities for pushing their objects?

15. Give an account of Surajah-Dowlah, and the circumstances in which he succeeded as Subahdar of Bengal. Describe the affair of the Black Hole of Calcutta.

16. What were the consequences of the cruelties in Calcutta? Who was Meer Jaffier? Give an account of the battle of Plassey. State the nature of the changes made on the dynasties.

17. What operations were undertaken in another quarter by the French? Who was Lally? Describe the progress of the war, and the fall of the French power in India. When did George II. die?

## CHAPTER X.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. TO THE CONCLUSION  
OF THE AMERICAN WAR, A. D. 1760—1783.

George III.—Bute Ministry—War with Spain—John Wilkes—The Stamp Act—Lord North's Ministry—American War—Battle of Bunker's Hill—General Washington—Declaration of Independence—Capitulation of Burgoyne—War with France—Rodney's Victory—Siege of Gibraltar—Surrender of Cornwallis—Shelburne Ministry—The No-popery Riots.

1. GEORGE III., who was proclaimed king on the 26th October, was in his 22d year, having been born on the 4th of June 1738. He was the grandson of the late king, being the son of Frederick, prince of Wales, who died before his father, and who had married the Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, under whom the young heir to the crown was educated. He was moral and dutiful in his private conduct, and amiable in his manners. Nor was it the least pleasing circumstance to the people that he was born in the country, and knew something of its language and customs. Horace Walpole, who had seen much of the former court, expressed in the following terms his first impressions of the new monarch. "For the king himself, he seems all good nature, wishing to satisfy everybody: all his speeches are obliging. I saw him again yesterday, and was surprised to find the levee-room had lost so entirely the air of the lion's den. This sovereign don't stand on one spot, with his eyes fixed royally on the ground, and dropping bits of German news—he walks about and speaks to everybody." "I saw him afterwards," says the same writer, "on the throne, where he is graceful and genteel, sits with dignity, and reads his answers to addresses well." He carried, indeed, the principle of punctilious politeness all his days to a painful extent, and the labour he had to undergo in noticing and remembering every one at his levees was greater than many a hard-working man expends in earning his livelihood. Thus even the ceremonial functions of royalty, independently of the cares of state, exacted a severe amount of duty.

Notwithstanding his appearance of good humour, George III. was extremely firm, or, as some would term it, obstinate. He had made arrangements before he came to the throne to change the members of the government. His mother and

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he himself had been for some time partial to the society of Lord Bute, a Scottish nobleman who had a handsome figure, possessed considerable accomplishments, and was especially devoted to the science of botany. The nominal head of the government at the time of his accession was Pelham, duke of Newcastle, a vain man, fond of applause, and madly devoted to the glory of official position. The real moving influence, however, was Pitt, the secretary of state for the foreign department; and he had an able coadjutor in Mr Legge, the chancellor of the exchequer. On the day after his accession, when the king was proceeding to the privy-council, Pitt put into his hands some notes of the proper kind of address which he ought to deliver. He was courteously thanked, but informed that the subject had already been considered, and thus he saw at once that there was a design to supersede him. Early in the ensuing year this was carried out by the appointment of the Earl of Bute to the ministry. He speedily put himself in opposition to Pitt by objecting to the project of a war with Spain; and on 5th October, Pitt himself resigned, and was succeeded by Lord Egremont.

2. The whig aristocracy had hitherto since the Revolution dictated who should be the ministers of the crown—the new king was determined to take the responsibility on himself. His predecessors were dependent on these great families for being kept on the throne. George the Third, a native of the country, and succeeding under an arrangement now nearly sixty years old, considered that the monarchy might stand alone, independently of such support. It is thought that, when insisting on a war with Spain, Pitt must have had private information of the family compact by which the branches of the family of Bourbon throughout Europe had secretly entered into a combination with each other. The discovery of this rendered necessary a war with Spain, which was declared on 4th January 1762. It was followed up with success,—the Havannah, the most important Spanish port in the West Indies, being reduced, while several other captures were made from which a considerable treasure was acquired. This was passing in great ceremony through the streets of London 12th Aug. } on the day when the Prince of Wales, afterwards 1762. } George IV., was born.

A peace was at last established on 10th February 1763, by the treaty of Paris, to which Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal were parties. Britain retained many of her conquests, including the ports on the Senegal, the island of Grenada, the Grenadines, St Vincent, Dominica, Tobago, and her conquests

in North America. Some of the acquisitions were restored to France, including Martinique, Guadaloupe, St Lucia, and other places in the West Indies, with Goree in Africa. The French were restored to Pondicherry, and their trading stations in India, with restrictions as to their military establishment, intended to protect the British East India Company from molestation; but the French interest there never recovered from the shock it had received, and it dwindled away until on the resumption of war Pondicherry was retaken. It was not the least important part of the treaty of 1763, that, in consideration of the restoration of Cuba, Spain gave up Florida to England, with whatever other possessions she had in America to the east or south-east of the Mississippi.

This peace had hardly been proclaimed a few days in London, when, somewhat to the astonishment of the public, Lord Bute resigned his office, and was succeeded by Mr George Grenville, afterwards celebrated as the inciter of the American war. Lord Bute was a well-meaning man, not without talents for private life, but destitute of the proper capacity for a minister of state, especially for one who professed to introduce a new system. No minister in this country was probably ever overwhelmed with such a storm of unpopularity as he encountered. Evil intentions and motives of all kinds were attributed to him, to the king, and to the princess his mother. Lord Bute was the first Scotsman who had ever been prime minister, and this was held forth as an insult to England. His peace was unpopular; and after he was driven from power, it was said that he still exercised what was called a back-stair influence, being the real minister, while Grenville was but the nominal one. The London shops swarmed with caricatures and lampoons against the object of popular dislike. He had been fiercely attacked in a periodical called the North Briton, conducted by John Wilkes, the member for Aylesbury. In No. 45 of this paper the king himself was censured. Wilkes was then seized, under a general warrant issued by Lord Halifax as secretary of state, and committed to the Tower.

3. JOHN WILKES was one of the most remarkable characters of the age. He was a man of rank, fortune, and education, but profligate in his morals, and unscrupulous in his political opinions. Along with Dashwood, Saville, and other dissipated gentlemen of the period, he was an active member of the Mock Monks Club, celebrated for its vicious and abominable orgies. His hatred against Lord Bute is said to have arisen from that minister having refused to appoint him ambassador to Constantinople, where he would be at a convenient distance from



his creditors. His appearance was singularly unprepossessing—he had a hideous squint, and a sinister smile; yet, from his peculiar talents, he could make himself fascinating to the fair sex as well as to the mob. But, bad as this man was, there is no doubt that he was the instrument of constitutional victories which have been of the utmost importance to the country. The order on which he was imprisoned was what is called a general warrant, which did not contain his name, or state the offence with which he was charged, but was merely issued against the authors, printers, and publishers of the *North Briton*. Our constitution is jealous of any such vague authorities, as by not expressly showing who is to be seized they give too much latitude to the persons who issue or enforce them. Wilkes was immediately released on an application to the Court of Common Pleas. He then brought an action against Lord Halifax, when the jury awarded him damages to the extent of £1000.

Wilkes had found it prudent, on account of his debts and other embarrassments, to take refuge on the continent, much to the relief of all persons in power. He returned, however, in 1768. Being highly popular, he was chosen member of parliament for Middlesex; but his offensive conduct prompted the house to expel him. Thus was raised the important constitutional question, how far that house possessed the power of depriving any constituency of the representative in whom they might think fit to repose their confidence. Wilkes was in the ensuing year again elected without opposition, and again declared incapable of sitting; and the same proceeding was a third time repeated on both sides. When he came forward for the fourth time, he was opposed by Major Luttrell, whose act in standing for the county was considered so dangerous that many people opened insurances on his life in their own favour, believing that he would fall a victim to his audacity, and thus they might obtain the sums insured. Though Wilkes was returned by an overwhelming majority, Luttrell was declared to be duly elected. Wilkes stood again for the county in 1771, was elected, and was tacitly permitted to take his seat. At a subsequent period all the proceedings against his capacity to be a member were erased from the journals by a vote of the house, as being “subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom.” Thus, through the instrumentality of a man of bad character and very questionable political intentions, one of the most valuable constitutional principles was firmly established.

4. **STAMP ACT.**—In 1765. Mr Grenville commenced the un-

happy efforts of taxation which severed the American States from Britain. He was a strenuous supporter of the powers of parliament, especially the power of granting and withholding taxes, and thus in an evil hour he moved, "That  
 5th March 1765. } towards defraying the expenses of protecting and securing the colonies, it may be proper to charge certain stamp-duties in the colonies." This was immediately followed by the act for laying a stamp-duty on the North American Colonies. It was received in America with the loudest denunciations. Some acts of violence were committed—associations were formed, consisting of the most influential men in the several places, to promote resistance to the tax, and a Congress of Deputies was assembled at New York. Even at home many people denounced the proceeding as a gross usurpation of authority, so long as America had no representatives in the British parliament, and an adage came into common use to the effect that "taxation without representation is tyranny." It was deemed wise to change the ministry and repeal the act. The new cabinet had at its head the Marquis of Rockingham, and it was afterwards joined by Pitt, created Earl of Chatham. It soon suffered several changes, however, among which was the introduction of Lord North; and unfortunately an act was passed in 1767 laying duties on tea, glass, paper, and other imports in the colonies. All these, with the exception of those upon tea, were soon after repealed. In 1770, the Duke of Grafton resigned, and Lord North, whose history has ever been connected with that of the American war, became prime  
 28th Jan. 1770. } minister. The duke had entered the ministry three years previously as a partisan of Chatham, but he was charged with shifting his policy; and the writer whose letters in the "Public Advertiser" are known as those of Junius, is supposed to have driven him from public life by the vehemence and bitterness of his attacks. Ever since Walpole's retirement in 1742 the ministry had been subject to rapid changes; but Lord North continued to rule the destinies of the nation for twelve years.

5. AMERICAN WAR.—Three years passed comparatively uneventful, until the eyes of the world were again directed to America by the attempts to enforce the duty on tea. Large cargoes of this commodity having been brought into Boston by vessels of the East India Company, they were boarded by a party of men disguised as Mohawk Indians, who threw the cargoes overboard. Similar outrages were committed on other parts of the coast, and at New York a cargo could only be landed under the cannon of a man-of-war. The feeling throughout

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by the celebrated Burke, who now began to take a lively interest in this vitally important discussion. On the other hand, the people of Manchester, Lancaster, Liverpool, and several large towns, presented what were termed loyal and dutiful addresses, offering their support to his majesty in his efforts to reduce his rebellious subjects to obedience.

6. Meanwhile the Americans were arming, training a national militia, and storing provisions and other necessities, in the prospect of a conflict. A military officer could not, of course, see such warlike preparations without attempting to interrupt them. Thus, the first blood in this contest 1775. } flict was drawn at Lexington, where the efforts to remove warlike stores were resisted. The town of Boston, where Gage's troops were posted, was invested by bodies of troops. On the 10th of May—the day to which it had been adjourned—the congress again met. It assumed the title of the Congress of “the Thirteen United Colonies of America.” They resolved to raise an army, and meet the expense of it by issuing paper money. Yet they still left room for conciliation. They sent over an address to the king, praying that measures might be adopted for terminating the unhappy contest which had broken out; but no answer was vouchsafed to it, on the ground that it came from an illegal body. The war now went on with vigour. The Americans took by surprise the forts of Ticonderago and Crown Point. They made an attack on the powerful fortress of Quebec, which, though it was defeated, showed their skill and determination. In the middle of June, they fought the bloody battle of Bunker's Hill, which was also gained by the royalists, but showed that the provincial troops would prove very formidable opponents. Hitherto most of their operations had been isolated and desultory. They now appointed as their commander-in-chief the illustrious George Washington, who had distinguished himself as a leader in the wars with the French, and who was known to be well acquainted with the civil affairs of the colonies. A more fortunate choice was never made. Washington, besides possessing remarkable military skill and abundant courage, was cautious, patient, and indefatigable. While he had to counteract the efforts of a powerful enemy with ample resources at their disposal, he had also to overcome incredible difficulties from the disputes and jealousies of those whom he had to command, and from a frequent scarcity in the means of providing the necessary supplies for his troops. But, calm and immovable, he struggled on to the end, and having accomplished his great object, retired into private life, declining those distinctions

which the enthusiasm of his countrymen would have readily yielded to him. He was assisted by many skilful generals; and in their civil business the Americans were aided by Benjamin Franklin, one of the most sagacious men of his age. Instead of risking great engagements, the policy of the Americans was to coop up the different bodies of British troops, and reduce them by cutting off their supplies. In this manner Gage was invested in Boston, until, by the pressure of famine, he was obliged to evacuate the town, and leave it to be entered in triumph by Washington.

7. Hitherto the demands of the Americans had been the mere redress of grievances. They were now resolved to cut themselves off from the mother country, with which they had been compelled to go to war. On the 4th of July 1776, the congress adopted the celebrated Declaration of Independence, and changed their name from "the United Colonies" to "the United States" of America. They announced the principle, that states may be dependent on others while this dependence is serviceable to both, but have the privilege of declaring themselves separate and independent whenever it becomes more expedient that they should stand alone. They enumerated the many wrongs which they maintained that the people of America had suffered from their dependence on England, and concluded that the thirteen colonies "are and ought to be free and independent states." Yet the military operations still continued to be unfavourable to the Americans. Lord Howe commanded a fleet and his brother an army, by which New York was invested. Unable to cope with the large force at their command, Washington, with wonderful skill, slipped out of his dangerous position, embarking his whole force, with their arms and baggage, in the dead of night, so silently that the besiegers knew not of their absence till daylight showed the unoccupied camp. At the end of the year 1776, the cause of independence in America was to all human appearance desperate. Nearly all the fortified places were in possession of the royalists, and almost every engagement had told against the republicans. But their condition only called forth the resources of their leader and of themselves. It was now seen that the combat was a death-struggle; and the middle and upper classes in great numbers sacrificed their possessions, and risked their lives in the service of the new republic. Reinforced and encouraged, Washington, by a forced march through a furious snow-storm, surprised a body of the German troops in the British service at Trenton, and took a large number of prisoners, with several pieces of can-

non. The war proceeded with varied success through the year 1777. In autumn, an expedition was sent against them from Canada under the command of General Burgoyne. At first he appeared to be successful, gaining occasional advantages, and driving the republicans before him. But as he left his resources behind him, his enemies were falling closer back upon their own, and, after two unsuccessful contests, he found  
17th Oct. } it necessary, with his whole army, to surrender to  
1777. } Gage, the American general.

8. The feeling in Britain regarding the dispute had now passed from indifference to intense anxiety. The ministry, instead of drawing a revenue from America, had involved the country in a costly war. At last they saw the policy of conciliation; and Lord North brought in a series of bills for conceding all that the Americans demanded, excepting only their national independence. A party had now sprung up, who were desirous that a separation should at once take place, believing that it had become inevitable, and that to delay it would only involve additional expense and bloodshed. Among those who determinedly resisted this proposal was Chatham, who had not ceased during this unhappy war to call for conciliation while it was yet time. The discussion of Lord North's measures produced his memorable last appearance in the House of Lords. Emaciated and exhausted by disease, he was borne to a seat; but the old fire still burned within him when he dilated on his favourite subject; and he concluded one of his great efforts of oratory by rejoicing that the grave had not closed over him, and that he was still alive to lift his voice "against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy." He sunk in a fit during this effort, and soon afterwards died.

The commissioners sent over with the conciliatory offers, were received with scorn. The Americans were daily gaining strength. They were even able to retaliate upon the British coasts and shipping, from the number of merchant vessels belonging to their harbours which had been converted into privateers. A naval commander in their service, John Paul Jones, committed considerable devastation both in England and Scotland, and was long the terror of our seaport towns. The French government, in an evil hour for itself, resolved to injure England by helping the revolted colonies—a policy for which it dearly paid in the impulse which it gave to republican principles in France. The celebrated Marquis de la Fayette, then a young enthusiast for liberty, with other Frenchmen of rank, first proceeded to America as private sym-

pathizers with the republican cause; but afterwards Franklin was received as the American ambassador at Paris, and a regular treaty was concluded between France and the States. Such a union had more than the mere effect of men and money on the American cause. It placed them at once in the rank of nations, and subjected them no longer to the risk of being considered as rebels. The most fastidious court in Europe in the support of royalty and legitimacy had thought fit to enter into a treaty with the new republic as an existing power. In the autumn of 1779, the Count D'Estaing was sent with a large force, naval and military, to the assistance of the Americans; but though the efforts made by France certainly did aid the American cause, the real and substantial difficulty with which the British government had to contend in this memorable war, was the untiring perseverance of their brethren in race and language struggling for independence.

9. When the French government thus aided the enemies of Britain, it was of course impossible to preserve peace between the two countries, and war was gradually resumed. Spain joined with France, more perhaps on account of the near relationship of the monarchs, who were both of the Bourbon family, than of any real interest which the Spanish people could have in a war with Britain, unless it were the recovery of Gibraltar. The war was chiefly conducted at sea. Spain, however, had not then become the feeble nation she now is. The French had a considerable fleet; and when the two navies were united, they could send out a force sufficient to deprive the British of that absolute command of the sea which she has enjoyed before and since. No great defeat was suffered; but in general the engagements were of an undecided character, and such as the British navy had not been accustomed to. The chief mortification of the country arose from the conduct of the fleet under Palliser and Keppel, who fought one of these doubtful battles with a French fleet in circumstances which would have given some of our great fighting admirals an opportunity for a brilliant victory. They disputed with each other, and were both tried by court-martial, but both acquitted. Sir George Rodney was the most celebrated naval commander of that day. He was a man of ardent mind and high genius; and he would have probably done good service to his country if he had not spent much of his time in dissipation, and become involved in pecuniary difficulties. He made many important captures, and defeated the Spanish admiral, Langara, near Cape St Vincent. These successes, however, hardly satisfied the nation, when they were compared with the fruits

of the previous war. The powerful fleets of France and Spain were, according to a rumour which kept the country in a state of nervous terror, to make a descent upon the coast; and it was a general belief at that time, published in many pamphlets and sermons, that the days of Britain's greatness were numbered,—that she had risen to the height of her prosperity, and must immediately begin to descend. Such views are adopted every now and then, in periods of calamity, and forgotten when national prosperity is restored.

10. GIBRALTAR.—Throughout that unhappy war, however, a portion of our countrymen, isolated on a solitary rock, gained, by their stubborn bravery and patient endurance, the admiration of the world. Ever since Gibraltar had fallen into the hands of the British the fortifications had been strengthened; and it was felt that its possession was very valuable as a means of protecting our commerce and giving refuge to our fleets. In 1779, the siege of this fortress was commenced by the united forces of France and Spain. The governor, General Elliot, conscious that he might be able to defy any assault that could be made, but that he could not be able to hold out against an investment which cut off all supplies of food, began immediately to make arrangements for enduring a protracted siege. There were four hundred guns kept firing month after month. At times, when there was a grand assault, the cannonade would continue for weeks at such a rate that fifty tons of gunpowder were calculated to be consumed every twenty-four hours, and from four to five thousand shot and shells discharged. Yet a comparatively small number of the garrison were killed. With the exception of one well-planned sally, in which the land army of the besiegers was driven back and its fortifications were destroyed, the siege of Gibraltar went on with comparative uniformity from its commencement in 1779 till September 1783. A grand and simultaneous attack was then to be made on the exhausted garrison, with floating castles well supplied with men and cannon, and they were to anchor close to the batteries of the fortress, and silence them by incessant firing. It at first seemed that all attempts to injure these floating batteries were vain—the heaviest cannon-balls pattering on them like hailstones on the roof of a house; but at length they were destroyed by a shower of red-hot balls poured on them from the fortress. In this grand attack the efforts of the besiegers became exhausted, and the  
 2d Feb. }  
 1783. } siege was shortly afterwards abandoned.

11. The fortune of the British arms in America was far from being so auspicious. Washington had begun to reap the fruit



of his patience, his caution, and above all his spirit of endurance, which enabled him to derive a benefit from every defeat, finding in it a new lesson in warfare. The British commander, Lord Cornwallis, had gained a victory at Guildford, in North Carolina, but it did him little service in a country where his enemy was ever recruited, while his own forces daily dwindled away. He soon afterwards formed an army in Virginia, but it was widely separated from the forces of General Clinton, who was stationed at New York. Washington, by sending fictitious despatches to be intercepted by the British, made them believe that an attack on New York was his main object. He took measures for the protection of his posts on the Hudson, near that town, and his operations had all the appearance of concentrating the war there; but suddenly he directed his course across the vast country which separated him from the basin of the Chesapeake, and appeared before the force under Cornwallis in the fortified station of York Town. Now came the great struggle, of transcendent importance to Washington and the Americans; for if they were victorious, there was little more to do. The operations were conducted on land with great skill on both sides. All hope of evacuating their post seawards was cut off from the royalist troops by the presence of a French fleet under De Grasse. The French allies had brought heavy cannon and practised artillerymen with them to aid the less instructed Americans. Between the two forces the small royalist army of 7000 men was hard pressed; and at last Cornwallis found it necessary to take the step which decided the fate of the war—he surrendered to Washington. The British vessels in the harbour at the same time struck to  
 1781. } the French admiral.

When these calamitous events became known in England, a large portion of the House of Commons determined if possible to put an end to a system which wasted British blood and treasure to no purpose. The first motion on the subject in the House of Commons was lost by a majority of one in favour of government; but the opposition persevered until they  
 1782. } attained their object. When the Earl of Surrey was  
 1782. } about to rise, a few days after, to make a similar motion in the House of Lords, it was announced that Lord North's government was at an end. A new ministry was formed under the Marquis of Rockingham, including Lord Shelburne and Mr Fox; and as the marquis died ere his cabinet had been many months old, it became the Shelburne administration. Under the auspices of this ministry the independence of America was declared on the 20th January

1783, at the same time that the war with France and Spain was brought to an end. A number of domestic reforms were carried out by this new cabinet; but before they are mentioned, it is necessary to narrate some occurrences which served to increase the despondency felt in many quarters regarding the fate of the country during the course of the American war.

12. LORD GEORGE GORDON'S RIOTS.—Some severe acts against the Roman-catholics, which had been passed soon after the Revolution, remained on the statute-book, and it was thought that after the lapse of nearly a century the time had come for repealing them. A measure of relaxation had indeed been passed so far as England was concerned; but an attempt to extend it to Scotland created tumults in Edinburgh and Glasgow, and in the meantime it was abandoned. This gave encouragement to the party in England who were in favour of persecuting the catholics, to band themselves together for the restoration of the penal laws against them. Lord George Gordon, a member of the House of Commons, whose enthusiasm bordered on insanity, became their leader. He presided at several meetings, where, with a sort of wild eloquence in which he excelled, he called upon his hearers to approach parliament in a resolute manner, and rather die than submit to a relaxation of the existing laws against popery. A protestant club was instituted, with branches throughout the country; and a plan was adopted for presenting a petition to parliament, attended by a vast procession of its members. At  
2d June } ten o'clock on the day appointed they assembled in  
1780. } St George's Fields to the number of 40,000, wearing blue cockades, with the inscription "No Popery." Lord George, who had a talent for organization, marched them in divisions towards the houses of parliament, which they surrounded. He then brought his petition before the house, who refused to hear it so long as their debates were conducted under the coercive influence of a mob. While they were discussing this preliminary question, Lord George went frequently forth to his followers, told them what was going on, and urged them to be bold and persevering. Great fears were entertained that they would burst into the house; and there is every reason to believe that Lord George would have induced them to do so, had he not been checked in his intention by General Murray, who threatened to treat him instantly as a rebel, and plunge a sword in his bosom whenever the first of his lawless followers should pass the threshold.

The people reassembled next day without doing any particular damage; but on the third day, which was Sunday,

seeing no precautions taken against them, they proceeded to destroy some Romish places of worship. On Monday a restless mob perambulated the streets, but the work of real destruction did not begin till Tuesday. The operators were now no longer confined to the protestant committee—they were joined, or rather superseded, by all the vicious characters of London, who saw a prospect of license and plunder in the excitement of the moment. They proceeded so methodically in their destructiveness that their plans might be supposed to have been long arranged. They singled out the dwellings of the statesmen and magistrates whom they disliked, and rapidly destroyed them. Among the houses so treated was that of the Lord Chief-justice Mansfield, where a fine library and, what was of more importance, the manuscripts of the owner, one of the ablest men of his day, were destroyed. Fire was the chief means used by the insurgents. They employed boys to climb on their shoulders, and fix to the upper part of the doors masses of tow steeped in turpentine, which being set on fire, the flames passed inwards, and speedily consumed the frail London houses, which were generally wooden frames with bricks inserted in them. On Wednesday the rioters began to attack the various jails and release the prisoners. And it was an odd instance of the fatality attending crime that most of the felons so liberated were caught again close to the neighbourhood of the ruined prisons from which they had escaped. The flames of the burning houses of course spread to others. Thus, on the evening of Wednesday, there were seen through London thirty-six great conflagrations, each spreading rapidly along its particular street, so that the horrified spectators were prepared to behold them all unite, and lay the whole city in ashes. Among other buildings some distilleries had been attacked, and the liquor, before it was sufficiently diluted for the use even of the most confirmed drunkards, was lavishly consumed by the mob, and ran along the kennels of the streets, where miserable wretches, male and female, sucked it up in such quantities that many of them expired, or, lying in a state of utter helplessness, were trampled to death by the fleeing rioters or their pursuers. After much hesitation and mismanagement, the military were at last authorized to act with rigour. The mob was then speedily dispersed, and many of the ringleaders were apprehended. Among these was the city hangman, who was spared the fate which awaited twenty-five of his companions, as his services were absolutely necessary in inflicting the miserable death to which they were condemned.

## EXERCISES.

1. What was the descent of George III.? Give an account of his character. Who was nominally at the head of the administration? Who had the real influence? What ministerial change took place?

2. What was intended as the political effect of the ministerial change? What compact is Pitt supposed to have been warned of? What war followed? What was accomplished by the treaty of Paris? Describe the character of Lord Bute. How did he become unpopular?

3. Give an account of John Wilkes. Why was he imprisoned? Describe the evils that might arise from the use of general warrants. What redress did he obtain? Give an account of the contests of Wilkes in the Middlesex elections, and of the constitutional question involved in them.

4. What did Mr Grenville commence in 1765? What were his political sentiments? What was the effect of his project in America? What ministerial changes took place? Who became prime minister? Give an account of the Duke of Grafton.

5. What took place at Boston and New York? What rendered the tea-duty peculiarly offensive? What acts of parliament were passed relating to America? Describe the effects which they produced. What congress was held? How did this body aid in the creation of a legislature? What line of conduct was adopted by Pitt?

6. How did the war commence? How did the congress proceed? What warlike operations did they undertake? Who was appointed commander-in-chief? Give an account of Washington's character.

7. Give an account of the Declaration of Independence. Describe the state of the war, and the prospects of the Americans. What was the result of Burgoyne's expedition?

8. What feelings did the war create in Britain? What measures were brought in by Lord North? What views did another party adopt? What effort was made by Pitt? What was the position of the Americans? Who was Lafayette? Describe the conduct of the French government, and its consequences.

9. What war was occasioned by the assistance which the French gave to the colonists? What was the character of the warlike operations? What occurred as to Palliser and Keppel? Give an account of Rodney. What victory did he gain? What fears were entertained in Britain?

10. Where were high qualities exhibited by the British during the war? When did the siege of Gibraltar begin? What arrangements did the governor adopt? Describe the progress of the siege. Describe the general attack with the floating batteries. How was it met? What was the result?

11. What was Washington's position? What was that of the British commander in America? Describe the circumstances under which Lord Cornwallis surrendered. Give an account of the proceedings in the House of Commons. What new ministry was formed? What events occurred in 1783?

12. What legislation as to the Roman-catholics excited attention? Who was at the head of the movement? What kind of man was Lord George Gordon? What was the protestant club? How did the tumults arise? Give an account of the progress of the riots in London, of the classes of people concerned in them, and of their suppression.

## CHAPTER XI.

FROM THE AMERICAN WAR TO THE UNION WITH IRELAND,  
A. D. 1783—1801.

**Economic Reform—Coalition Ministry—Ministry of the younger Pitt—His Reform Projects—Impeachment of Warren Hastings—Tippoo Saib—Burke and the French Revolution—Trial of Horne Tooke—War with France—The Duke of York—Siege of Toulon—Threatened Invasion of Britain—Mutiny at the Nore—Suspension of Cash Payments—Battles of St Vincent, Camperdown, and the Nile—Irish Rebellion—The Union.**

1. THE American question, and the wretched events which were contemporary with it, still embarrassed all who served the crown. The terms of the peace, and especially the emancipation, as it was called, of the United States, created much discussion; and the majorities in favour of the ministry in the House of Commons, where the fate of a cabinet is always decided, were small. At the same time, other questions of importance, on which parties were divided, were now introduced. There had been great abuses in the management of the public money. In general, the persons who collected the various taxes remunerated themselves in the first place, and thus it was impossible to ascertain how far they dealt fairly towards the public. There were many ways of keeping the accounts of the revenue; and they were so complicated and peculiar that it was quite impossible for any one to make himself responsible for the amount being honestly accounted for. At the same time, many of the persons employed by government could not get a fair remuneration for their services, because men in office were careless and indolent, or had reasons for delaying the payment of their salaries. Edmund Burke, an Irishman of high genius and varied acquirements, set himself to remedy this evil. He procured a complete revisal of the national accounts, and among other ingenious arrangements he adopted one which was as simple as it was effective—namely, that the heads of departments who had to pay the salaries of the various persons employed in them should be the last attended to, and should not receive their own until all the others were paid.

Other projects, which were afterwards forgotten in the alarms and calamities of the French revolution, were at this time

commenced. Among these was a plan for the reform of the House of Commons, which was earnestly supported by William Pitt, the son of Lord Chatham, and the heir of his genius. It was the common opinion at the time, that this young man was destined to bring the nation to something like the republicanism which his father had been charged with fostering in America; but subsequent events changed his system of politics.

2. There had been a split in the ministry. The friends of the deceased Lord Rockingham differed in opinion from those of his successor, Lord Shelburne. Mr Pitt supported the latter; and the statesman who was afterwards his great rival, Charles Fox, was supposed to be a man likely to take office in the new cabinet. Pitt was sent to negotiate with him, but without success; and this occasion is said to have been the last on which these two remarkable men, whose rivalry became so celebrated twenty years afterwards, met each other in confidential conference.

The Shelburne ministry was now tottering, and strange rumours were in circulation as to the arrangements for replacing it. A member of the House of Commons, Mr Powys, said in the course of a debate that it was "an age of strange confederacies; a monstrous coalition had taken place between a noble lord and an illustrious commoner; the lofty assertor of the prerogative had joined in an alliance with the worshippers of the majesty of the people." So it was. The old supporter of high tory principles, Lord North, formed a union with the young advocate of freedom, Mr Fox. This celebrated coalition ministry had for its nominal head the Duke of Portland. It has often been attacked as dishonest; for there is a feeling in this country that each party should fight out fairly and openly its own objects, and that for one of them to join another of opposite opinions for the purpose of merely acquiring strength is a bad policy, which will in the end destroy itself. It so proved in this case. Mr Fox brought in his celebrated India bill. The acquisition of territory in India had proceeded so rapidly since the operations of Lord Clive were last noticed, that it had become necessary to have some government control over the new empire, unless it were to be left to the sovereignty of the East India Company, who never could have governed it as a commercial company, but must have left it a prey to the boldest and most unscrupulous officers in its service. Mr Fox's bill proposed the appointment of a certain number of official persons to act with the directors of the East India Company, and control their proceedings.

According to his plan these officers would be appointed by parliament. It is the general arrangement in this country, and apparently a beneficial one, that the appointment to all public offices is in the sovereign; that is to say, in the ministers of the crown enjoying the confidence of parliament. George III. thought that Fox's measure disparaged his prerogative, and he set his face against it. It was rejected in the House of Lords after having passed the Commons, and  
 17th Dec. } next day the coalition ministry resigned its func-  
 1783. } tions.

3. The formation of a new ministry was now intrusted to Mr Pitt. Though only twenty-four years old, he was put forward to carry on a great constitutional conflict on which the king had resolved to enter. A considerable body of the aristocracy, by their influence in the House of Commons, still dictated to the government, and it was the object of George III. to transfer their power to the crown. With this view he determined to support his minister against the House of Commons,—an object in which he could only be successful by popular aid. The idea of placing so young a man in such a position was highly ridiculed by Fox and his followers. They showed their contempt by carrying vote after vote against him, sometimes with large majorities, sometimes without the trouble of dividing the house. The business of the nation was at a stand; the supplies for paying the expenses of the army and navy and the public offices were not granted; and it seemed inevitable that the king would be beaten, as William the Fourth was when he endeavoured to force a tory ministry on the country in 1834. A new element, however, was now at work, which the Commons did not anticipate. While the king remained unmoved, threatening even to resign his trust and retire to Hanover, the people began to take an interest in so curious a struggle, and with characteristic generosity they took the side of what seemed the weaker party. Addresses began to pour in, offering support to the crown in what was called its righteous conflict. The opinions which Pitt had expressed in favour of parliamentary reform naturally acquired for him popularity. The majority now became afraid for their seats if parliament should be dissolved, and they wavered in their support of Fox, so that at last in one of the divisions he had only a majority of twelve. The death, in Italy, of an almost  
 21st Jan. } forgotten man served, too, at this juncture to  
 1784. } strengthen the power of the crown. It was that of Prince Charles Edward Stewart, who headed the expedition of 1745. There had been no actual fear of another rebellion;

but many families of highly loyal principles were desirous of an apology for transferring them from the house of Stewart to that of Hanover, and they found a convenient excuse in this event. At length the contest was brought to a conclusion. An address to the throne for the removal of ministers was  
 8th March } proposed, and, after a hard contest, it was carried  
 1784. } by a majority of only one. Parliament was now dissolved. The whole forces both of the principle of loyalty and of popular feeling were embarked in the new election; and when it reassembled, the first division showed ministers in a majority of 282 to 114.

4. The minister now lost no time in bringing in his own measure for the government of India. It established the present Board of Control, giving the government a voice and a check in the management of the vast empire which the East India Company were acquiring, while it left to that body the unlimited management of its trading affairs, and preserved its monopoly. The years which elapsed from this period until the first French revolution shook all Europe, were comparatively uneventful. Mr Pitt was under an understood pledge to bring forward the cause of parliamentary reform; and early in 1785 he introduced a measure on the subject, in which he proposed to transfer the right of election from thirty-six decayed burghs to so many larger constituencies, and to extend the franchise in large towns to the inhabitants generally, and in counties to copyholders as well as freeholders. The bill was strongly opposed, and it was negatived by 248 to 174. Had he been as sincerely anxious to carry it as to forward his other measures, he would not have submitted to this defeat. But he was beginning to lose taste for his early reforming opinions, and he never gave the cause any farther aid. From the time, however, when it was abandoned by the minister, it began to take root in the popular mind, from which it was never totally eradicated.

Much of the public attention at this time was occupied by the impeachment of Warren Hastings, which called forth the most brilliant displays of eloquence ever heard in Britain, from Burke, Sheridan, and the other great orators of the day. He had been appointed governor-general of India after the conquests of Clive, but before they had been consolidated, or the British dominions there brought under a system of regular order. He had wily and unscrupulous opponents to contend with, in the Rajah of Mysore, the Mahrattas, and other native princes. He maintained the British supremacy with great skill and boldness; but his accusers charged him with having adopted unscrupulous means, too like those of eastern rulers,



but not to be justified in a British statesman. The articles of impeachment were brought forward in 1786; but after a period of unprecedented excitement and interest, the protracted investigation on which they entered became too tedious for the zeal of his prosecutors. They relaxed their endeavours; public opinion changed to the side of the accused, and in 1796 he was acquitted.

The king had for some time shown symptoms of mental alienation; and in November 1788, the ministry had to meet the alarming fact that his majesty was labouring under confirmed insanity. In such circumstances it was necessary to take measures for conducting the business of the country, and the difficulty was all the greater as it was impossible to obtain the king's assent to a bill settling the matter. Many disputes arose on this perplexing subject, but they were happily terminated by a message, on 10th March 1789, intimating his majesty's recovery. Strong manifestations of joy were shown throughout the country, and the king himself joined in an act of thanksgiving in St Paul's Cathedral.

The warlike operations of Britain during this interval were confined to India, where Tippoo Saib, the son of Hyder Ali, sovereign of Mysore, inherited all his father's hostility to the British. The war was conducted with vigour under Lord Cornwallis and General Baird; and like all the others in India, it ended in an increase of the British territory. In February 1792, the strong fortress of Seringapatam was invested; and Tippoo, driven to his last resources, was compelled to agree to a peace which deprived him of the greater part of his dominions, and broke the influence of his family in the east.

5. The French revolution, which was now in full progress, was viewed with varied feelings by the several parties in English politics. The friends of prerogative and aristocracy saw in every part of it nothing but the most daring wickedness, and an invasion of established powers which all good citizens in every part of the world should endeavour to put down. The whigs were divided among themselves. Mr Burke's romantic mind was excited by the fallen greatness of the court and the sufferings of the nobility; and it was said of him, as entirely overlooking the people, that he pitied the plumage but forgot the dying bird. He predicted that the French would fall under a military despotism, which proved true; but he also foretold that the country would be enfeebled and become utterly powerless in war,—a prophecy which subsequent events showed to be false. Fox and many of his friends, though they could not justify the licentious horrors of the events in

Paris, yet held that good would in the end come of the destruction of an old and corrupt tyranny. The estrangement between them was shown by a vehement attack made 9th Feb. } in parliament by Burke upon the revolutionists; and 1790. } the complete separation thus produced between old friends brought tears into the eyes of Fox. It was remarkable that while Burke thus ardently adopted a side, Pitt was silent; but it was well known that he was getting rid of all his reforming propensities, and becoming a thorough friend of arbitrary power. Besides those who thought with Fox that in the end the revolution would do good, there were some, but not many, who applauded all the acts of the French, and would have readily imitated them at home. Such sentiments were so generally unpopular, however, that the moderate friends of reform suffered from being supposed to be identified with them. A public dinner was held in Birmingham to celebrate the capture of the Bastille, when the gentlemen present were assailed by a mob with furious shouts of "church and king." Before they separated the rioters sacked the houses of several 14th July } obnoxious individuals, and destroyed the fine library 1791. } of the philosopher Priestley. Several societies of various kinds were now instituted. Some of them were for the condemnation of the principles of the French revolution. Among those which either sympathized with the French or were charged with doing so, were the Corresponding Society of London, which had widely organized itself throughout the country, the Constitutional Society, the Revolution of 1688 Society, and the Friends of the People. Many eminent men joined these associations; and the Friends of the People counted among their members Sheridan, Mr, afterwards Earl, Grey, Whitbread, and Erskine. There is no doubt that there were at that time men who were ready to subvert the laws and the constitution by violence, and to aid the French destructives, after they had finished their own evil work, in destroying the whole system of that civilisation which had been the steady growth of centuries in Britain. But there were other men, and they were by far the greater number, who only wished to improve our constitution by the removal of abuses which had crept in, or the remedy of practices which were defective and unsuitable to the wants of the age. It was unfortunate that, probably from the extremely tragic character of the events in France, a habit arose of confounding these two with each other, and of counting as criminals those who desired to obtain by peaceful and constitutional means what is now the law of the land.

6. Some of the prejudices which had at first made any proposals of change extremely unpopular at last began to diminish; and the ministry, though desirous of punishing certain of the agitators, found that English juries would not enable them to do so. The Scottish jury system had not, however, been placed upon the broader basis which it has since occupied, and it was found convenient to strike the first blow there against the friends of innovation. Accordingly several persons were tried, found guilty of sedition, and condemned to transportation. Some of them had doubtless involved themselves as abettors of the French revolutionists; but others, such as Mr Muir, a Scottish barrister, and Mr Gerrald, an English gentleman of high classical attainments, had done nothing to deserve the felon's punishment of transportation, and the ministry had to stand a very damaging debate in the House of Commons as to their fate. The government at the same time made an attempt to teach the innovators a severe lesson in England.

A.D. } A prosecution for high-treason was instituted against  
 1794. } several persons, the most conspicuous of whom was John Horne Tooke. He was a great scholar, and had shown peculiar abilities in tracing the affinities of languages; but he was eccentric, vain, and foolishly fond of notoriety. Those who were selected for his fellow-victims were men of inferior stamp—Thelwall, a clever and plausible lecturer; Daniel Adams, a clerk; and Thomas Hardy, a shoemaker. These trials were a serious mistake of the government. The cause of Horne Tooke being seized was an intercepted letter to him from a brother conspirator, containing the following passage: "Is it possible to get ready by Thursday?" It was supposed that what was to be got ready was an army to attack parliament and dethrone the king. It turned out on his trial to be only a statement, to be printed in the newspapers, of the emoluments held by the various members of the Pitt family. Nothing was more unpopular in England in the year 1792 than the principles of the French revolutionists; and their conduct tended greatly to check all reforms in Britain, and especially some measures having a tendency to free trade which Pitt had announced. The government's own conduct created the first reaction to the general tide of public opinion. Tooke, Hardy, and the other persons tried for treason, were acquitted; and so great was the public interest taken in them that the announcements of acquittal were received with loud cheers by anxious assemblages. The circumstances in which they were placed procured a sort of agreeable celebrity to some of these men; and Hardy, who otherwise would have

probably remained an obscure mechanic, happening to live to an old age, received frequent public honours as a martyr in the cause of liberty.

7. In the fury of their new republicanism, the French declared themselves hostile to all the world who were not republican. Austria too promptly answered the challenge by coming forward as the champion of legitimacy, and she was immediately punished by the defeats which the French republican troops inflicted on her army. All parties behaved with folly on the occasion, and all suffered for their rashness. A royal message was sent down to parliament, informing them  
 28th Jan. } that the king had determined to augment the national  
 1793. } forces "for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandizement and ambition on the part of France, at all times dangerous to the interests of Europe, but particularly so when connected with the propagation of principles subversive of the peace and order of all civil society." In the war conducted in the Netherlands in 1793 the British bore a part under the command of the Duke of York; but though popular with the military, from his kindness and his fairness in the distribution of rewards, he was not a skilful commander, and he achieved nothing worthy of notice. Several attempts were made to enable the royalists of France, many of whom, especially in the district of La Vendée, fought with great heroism, to co-operate with the British troops, but they were always unsuccessful. Lord Hood appeared with a fleet at Toulon; and however well intended might have been the effort thus made to aid the royalists in that part of France, it was very ineffectual. The siege of Toulon by the republicans was remarkable for first calling out the resources of Napoleon Bonaparte. While his endeavours to protect the town had been so unavailing, the British commander had the satisfaction of having done all that was possible to rescue the wretched inhabitants from the doom awaiting them at the hands of their enemies.

The misfortunes of the British troops in the Netherlands were aggravated by the breaking out of disease, and by hardships peculiar to the climate, against which proper precautions had not been taken. The nation saw with dissatisfaction vast sums of money expended and life wasted, not for any proper national object, but to aid the despotic monarchs of the continent. Such circumstances had a bad effect upon the public mind, and seriously neutralized that feeling of loyalty to the institutions of the country which had been so prevalent a year or two earlier. At the same time large sums were ad-

vanced to various foreign courts in the shape of subsidies, to enable them to carry on a war for which their own resources were quite incompetent. The Low Countries were at last evacuated and left to the successful republicans; while the wretched remnant of our troops, only a fifth part of the original force, were glad to embark at Bremen, and return to their own country.

8. In its increasing strength the French republic was at last not content with self-defence or neighbouring conquest. In fact, the threats of Austria and Prussia had compelled the French Directory to adopt desperate and determined efforts for the protection of the country; because they knew that if the Bourbons were immediately restored by foreign arms, they would be sacrificed to the vengeance of the royalists. Thus they were driven as it were to create a great military force, which required to be employed; and the neighbouring governments saw with horror the monstrous combative mass which they had thus brought into existence. These fears now extended to Britain. The English people, and everything connected with their institutions and customs, had been extremely popular in France at the commencement of the revolution; but the government had made common cause with the enemies of the French, and thus the feelings of respect and partiality towards us were succeeded by those of intense hostility. An expedition against the British empire was at last fitted out at Brest, under Admiral Joyeuse, which was to be followed by a land force commanded by the intrepid General Hoche. There is no doubt that, considerable as was the national discontent, and loudly as the government was abused, in the event of an actual invasion, the people would have rallied heartily and steadily round their institutions. The French therefore judged wisely that neither England nor Scotland was the place where they could expect to be joined by the inhabitants; and the expedition was directed to the coast of Ireland, where the people were deeply dissatisfied with English rule, and had indeed some of the feelings of a conquered nation. A part of the fleet actually reached Bantry Bay. The remainder, however, conveying Hoche and part of his force, was detained by contrary winds; and the elements, not for the first or last time, saved the country from the presence of an enemy.

Though the operations of the British land forces, in conjunction with those of the German sovereigns, had been so unsatisfactory, our navy was still victorious on its native element. The West India Islands belonging to the French

were captured one after another. A large convoy with merchant vessels being expected from America, the Brest fleet was sent out to add to its strength in passing through the narrow seas swarming with British ships. They were encountered in the  
 1st June } Bay of Biscay by a British fleet under the command  
 1794. } of Lord Howe, and driven back with the loss of several vessels.

9. **MUTINY OF THE NORE.**—Before this could be followed by other victories, however, a danger of the most alarming kind threatened the country from the very fleet itself. The sailors, who are now admitted to have had many just grievances to complain of, had formed themselves into a well arranged combination, and their superiors, while neglecting the grievances, had been equally careless in guarding against their consequences. The mutiny began at Spithead, where Lord Bridport having given the signal to prepare to put to sea, the men, instead of answering it, ran up the rigging, and cheered from ship to ship. An attempt was made to conciliate them, but in vain; and the captain of one of the ships, the London, having ordered his marines to fire on them when they were holding a convention, they seized him and some other officers and kept them in custody. Lord Howe was at last appointed to concede their claims, and this part of the force returned to its duty. But the larger fleet collected at the Nore, fancying that violence was the only method of obtaining redress, revolted in a still more systematic manner, and made much more extensive demands. They superseded all the officers by a committee of delegates appointed from themselves, and selected a man of great skill and courage, named Parker, to be their admiral. Twenty-six sail of the line were at one time in a state of open mutiny, and under this man's command. Various efforts were made to influence and intimidate them, but in vain; and the government felt nearly paralyzed by an event which seemed to place them at the mercy of the enemy. But still greater dangers threatened them. Among the various discordant proposals of the mutineers some spoke of giving up themselves and their ships to the service of France, while others suggested a bombardment of Sheerness. To the honour of their patriotism and good feeling, however, no such projects were adopted, nor was anything done showing a cruel or reckless disposition. However skilful may be the management on such occasions, it is impossible to supersede at once old habits of organization and establish new ones. Divisions and disputes  
 June. } took place, and when a proclamation was issued offering  
 1797. } pardon to all except the ringleaders, ship after ship came

under the guns of Sheerness. It was thought necessary to visit some of the ringleaders with capital punishment. Parker, who had been but a few days all-powerful, was peaceably given up to a body of soldiers sent to seize him. He was put on trial, and after a long investigation sentenced to death. His execution took place with great solemnity, and he admitted that his punishment was well merited. A few of the delegates suffered with him. Grievances were afterwards redressed, quietness was restored, and the public soon got into the habit of expecting news of a very different kind about the doings of the British navy.

10. The mutiny at the Nore was not the sole object of apprehension in the year 1797. It began to be perceived that what is called a drain of bullion had set upon the Bank of England; that is, people holding paper-money wished to have it exchanged for gold. This was attributed to the fear of invasion, which had induced many people to invest their property in bullion, as the most convenient thing to carry off or conceal when an enemy was plundering and burning their houses. But the greater portion of the gold disappeared in a different direction, owing to the large subsidies paid to the foreign powers, who generally required to get the money voted to them put in this shape to pay their troops. When the bank closed on Saturday the 25th of February, the gold in its coffers, instead of being as it usually is above ten millions, only amounted to one million and two hundred and seventy thousand pounds,—a sum which would not have stood the run of Monday morning many hours. On Sunday the privy-council met, and issued an order prohibiting the bank from paying in bullion until the sense of parliament should be taken. This was accompanied by an assurance that the wealth possessed by the bank in other shapes was quite sufficient to meet all its obligations, and with an engagement by some of the greatest London merchants offering to take bank notes for any sums due to them. The prohibition was confirmed by the Bank Restriction Act; but the directors acted with so much discretion that bank notes rose to be worth more for a time than their nominal value in gold.

11. While this internal matter was under adjustment, heroic deeds were performed at sea. Sir John Jervis attacked a  
14th Feb. } Spanish fleet off Cape St Vincent, and gained a signal  
1797. } victory, capturing four ships. He accomplished this by the bold operation, peculiar to our British commanders, of breaking the line. The old naval system had been that the contending fleets came up in two lines, and fired at each other

like columns of infantry. The breaking of the line consisted in getting right through it, and cutting off one part from the other. An overwhelming force was brought to bear on the portion so separated, and in this way a British admiral with a small fleet was often able to have the advantage of a superior force, by dividing that of his enemy and encountering a part at a time. It was not unlike the policy of Napoleon on land, whose practice was to keep his own troops concentrated, and beat his enemy in detail. The same tactics were soon afterwards practised against a nation far more equally matched with us on the waves. The Dutch had unfortunately become mere vassals of France, and their fleet was met and fought by Duncan near Camperdown. Their admiral and all his seamen behaved with the heroic stubbornness of their nation, and it might rather be said that they were destroyed than that they yielded. This victory was the more important, as it was afterwards discovered that the Dutch fleet had been destined to join in an expedition against Britain.

The vast armaments fitting out in France gave grounds for expecting another invasion, better concocted and more formidable than that intended to be led by Hoche. The country was in a state of extreme excitement, some people believing the idea of an actual invasion to be a mere hallucination, but the greater portion thinking that it was close at hand; and among them all kinds of rumours spread, representing the preparations in the most formidable and terrible light. The government did its duty in arming the country, and preparing for the event, whatever it might be. Large bodies of men were brought together as militia and volunteers. The zeal shown by all ranks throughout the kingdom to defend it from a foreign foe was a cheerful indication that the discontents of those who demanded a reform of the electoral system were not dictated by enmity, but by friendship to their institutions. The most vigilant preparations were made to detect any attempt at a landing. On the tops of eminences masses of combustibles, which could be at once ignited, were ready to spread the alarm and connect the different parts of the coast with each other. There was at least one occasion on which an accidental and false alarm lighted up many of these beacons, and brought together the men who were ready to fight for their homes in numbers which astonished and perplexed the people among whom they were concentrated; but however inconvenient it might prove to be on the spot, the evidence of spirit and determination which it afforded was highly gratifying.

12. The French expedition, instead of being destined for an



attack on Britain, sailed for Egypt, and there landed Napoleon, who by his signal victories in Italy was already the rising star in France. The precise aim of this expedition has ever been involved in mystery. Napoleon himself had dreams of eastern empire, but he afterwards founded a more substantial greatness in France. It has been conjectured that the object of the expedition was to effect an entrance to the British empire in India, whence the French imagined that Britain derived her whole wealth and strength, which were in reality the fruit of her industry and enlightened system of government. That this expedition escaped an attack by sea appeared a mere matter of fortunate accident. When Napoleon had arrived in safety, however, he was still met by British skill and courage. The Turks in the defence of Acre were so well assisted by Sir Sidney Smith with his ships, and the services of his seamen and marines, that the siege, after a protracted and desperate effort, was abandoned. But even before the attack on Acre had commenced, a still more serious blow was struck at France. Nelson, in pursuit of the French fleet, came in sight of it at last, though not until it had landed Napoleon and the army of Egypt. The encounter took place near the mouth of the Nile, and it is always known in history as the battle of the Nile. The French admiral looked more to the safety of his vessels than to the chance of a victory, and they were anchored in water so shallow that it was supposed their line could not be cut. These were exactly the circumstances in which superior seamanship could be shown, by working the vessels, and not by using them as stationary batteries, where all that was necessary was to serve the guns. This was probably the most desperate combat in our whole naval annals. It lasted far into the night, when the darkness was lighted up by the continuons flashes of cannon, and the lurid glare of burning fragments of vessels. The ship *L'Orient* of a hundred and twenty guns blew up with a terrible explosion, involving in instant and fearful destruction the French admiral 1st Aug. } and a thousand men. Of the thirteen sail of the line 1793. } brought into action by the French, nine were captured, and the naval power of France was effectually crippled. A small expedition fitted out to accomplish a landing in Ireland was soon afterwards surprised and defeated by Admiral Warren. Another land expedition was sent to Holland in the autumn of 1799, with little better success than the former one; and the presence of an English fleet prompted the Dutch to declare their allegiance to the house of Orange, and repudiate the French domination.

13. The British government now felt, however, that in Ireland it had a difficulty greater than any that was to be dreaded from foreign enemies. The disaffection of a large portion of the inhabitants to the system under which the country was governed, and the perpetual eye which France seemed to have towards that island as the vulnerable part of the empire, were both sufficiently alarming. In later times the Roman-catholic population have been generally understood to be the most inimical to British rule, but at this period it was the Irish protestants, who, though few in number, have ever held the upper hand in that country since the Revolution, who gave the tone and direction to the movements. They established the Irish volunteers, who with arms in their hands dictated their terms to the government, and obtained the removal of the law which humiliated Ireland, by making its legislature subject to an English revision of its proceedings. When the parliament of Ireland and the parliament of England were, however, both free and independent legislatures, each under the same sovereign, it was clear that there was a great danger of collision, just as there had been as to Scotland nearly a century earlier. In fact, the danger was practically perceptible; for the Irish legislature, desirous to show its independence, was seeking to settle its relations with foreign powers on a principle different from that pursued by England, and which, unless the king favoured England to the prejudice of Ireland, would let Ireland have her wars with those who were at peace with Britain, and her treaties with its enemies. It would be a painfully tiresome task to give any account of the various associations and combinations which distracted that unhappy country during the French revolution. The most remarkable feature in the whole series of these Irish disturbances is, that the most turbulent people were generally those who stood up for the supremacy of the British government and the maintenance of the constitution. Thus, a society who came into existence in 1795, calling themselves Orangemen, in commemoration of King William and the Revolution, committed immense havoc among their poor, feeble, and ignorant neighbours, who were more entitled to their pity than their severity.

A body, however, at last arose so formidable as to cast these small and partial combinations into the shade. It was professedly connected with no religious party, but consisted of men belonging to all, and it took the name of the Association of United Irishmen. A widely ramified conspiracy had been formed to free Ireland from its connexion with England, and establish it as a separate republic. Their having this in view,

instead of desiring to become attached to France, made the French less zealous to aid them than they might perhaps have otherwise been. The abettors of this project included Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Arthur O'Connor, Emmet, and other men of name and position in Ireland. It was made known to the government by spies, who were at the same time deeply suspected of having exaggerated the importance of their discoveries and the guilt of those whom they accused. Though great precautions were taken, a formidable insurrection broke out in 1798. While the spirit of independence had been fostered at least as much by the Protestant as the Catholic body, the disturbances took the prevailing tone of the population, and became a war of Catholic against Protestant, in which the influence of the priests among the former was supreme. Horrible atrocities were committed on both sides; and the spirit of extermination spreading to the troops, was severely censured by their humane general, Sir Ralph Abercromby. It was high time that some plan should be taken to neutralize the dreadful animosities of the country, and consolidate it with England; and nothing seemed better suited to this purpose than a legislative union. After much angry discussion, especially in the

1st Jan. } Irish parliament, this object was effected on the  
1801. } first day of the nineteenth century. The principles of this union were the same in general as those which had applied to Scotland; but a sort of court was still preserved in Ireland, under a high officer called the Lord Lieutenant, and there was a separate secretary of state to attend to Irish business. An adjustment was made of the public burdens of the two countries, which keeps Ireland exempt from many taxes affecting England. Twenty-eight temporal lords were appointed to represent the Irish peerage, and the bishops were to sit by rotation four at a time. The number of Irish members brought into the United House of Commons was one hundred.

#### EXERCISES.

1. What created ministerial embarrassments? What domestic question of importance arose? Describe the abuses in the collection of the revenue, and the manner in which they were remedied. What other reform was talked of? Who supported it?
2. What took place between Pitt and Fox? What rumours got into circulation? What coalition was concluded? Describe the nature of a coalition ministry. What bill did Mr Fox bring in? What was its nature and object? How did George III. act?
3. Who was made the head of the new ministry? What was peculiar in Pitt's being the prime minister? How did parliament act? Describe the manner in which Pitt was supported by the king, and obtained popular favour. What was the result as shown in the elections?

4. What measure was adopted as to India? Give an account of Mr Pitt's parliamentary reform bill. What was its fate? What caused the impeachment of Warren Hastings? What events occurred as to the king's health? What warlike operations were conducted?

5. What effects had the French revolution on Britain? What were Burke's predictions? What political quarrel did his sentiments on the revolution occasion? What was Pitt's conduct? What was the fate of those who sympathized with the French? What occurred at Birmingham? Give an account of the societies which were formed.

6. What change of feeling took place? What was its effect? Give an account of the trials in Scotland. Who was Horne Tooke? Who were the men who were put on trial along with him? What was the result of the trials in England?

7. What were the effects of the French revolution? On what principles was war declared? What operations were carried on in the Netherlands? What peculiarities of the war prejudiced the public mind? What pecuniary advances were made by Britain?

8. What effect had the war on the French revolutionists? What efforts on their part occasioned alarm in England? How were the British likely to meet the threatened invasion? What was the result of the attempt? What were the results of our naval operations?

9. What was the cause of the mutiny at the Nore? Give an account of its rise and progress. Give an account of its suppression.

10. What other circumstances created alarm in the year 1797? How did the gold in circulation disappear? What was the state of the bank of England? Give an account of the bank restriction.

11. What victory was gained by Sir John Jervis? Give a description of the operation of breaking the line in naval warfare? What victory was gained by Duncan, and over whom? How did the country act on the occasion of a threat of invasion?

12. Give an account of the French expedition against Egypt. How was it supposed likely to concern this country? What was performed by Sir Sidney Smith? Give an account of the battle of the Nile.

13. Describe the state of Ireland at the end of the eighteenth century. Who were the Irish volunteers? What were the dangers from the circumstance of Ireland being a separate state from Britain? What were the views and projects of the United Irishmen? What disturbances took place in Ireland? State the main conditions of the union of Britain and Ireland.

## CHAPTER XII.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY  
TO THE PENINSULAR WAR, A. D. 1801—1808.

The Maritime Confederacy—Battle of Copenhagen—Battle of Alexandria—The Addington Ministry—Peace of Amiens—Renewal of the War—Seizure of British Travellers in France—Projected Invasion of Britain—Trafalgar—Death of Pitt and Fox—Lord Melville's Impeachment—The Orders in Council—Bombardment of Copenhagen.

1. THE battle of the Nile had roused the dormant European states to resist the growing power and warlike aggressiveness of the French, and an alliance had been concluded between Britain and Russia, in which, as usual, the latter government received a considerable subsidy to carry on the war. It was continued in Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, where large armies were concentrated, and great battles fought with varied success. The result, however, served to strengthen and enlarge the influence of France, and the Emperor of Germany had to consent to a humiliating peace. Thus the efforts of Britain to support by money a counterpoise to French influence were quite unavailing. On the side of Russia they were still more hopeless; for the new emperor, Paul, who was eccentric to the extent of insanity, had conceived a sort of chivalrous admiration for Napoleon. He laid an embargo on 300 English vessels in his ports, and marched their crews into the interior of his vast and desolate territories. It was time for Britain to abandon the hollow support of hired emperors seeking their own selfish ends, and trust to her own resources. This was the more necessary as, on the element where her strength lay, the country was now threatened by peculiar dangers. As having the greatest maritime force in the world at her command, it had naturally fallen to Britain to administer, as it were, the naval code of all nations. This was said to be sometimes done in a tyrannical and insolent manner, but certainly not more so than it would have been in the hands of other governments. The interest, however, of a power so situated made it do things which in time of war were very annoying to persons who desired to be neutral. When Britain attacked the fleets and seized the ships of France wherever they were met, it became advantageous to the smaller states to serve the wants of such a country, and replace its

ships; thus, the Danes and the Swedes could derive a large profit by conveying arms to France, and by carrying on that French commerce which the vessels of France could not attempt without almost the certainty of being captured. That the British cruisers should allow states professing to be neutral to supply their enemy with warlike stores was, of course, out of the question. But Britain carried the rule farther, and would not permit the neutral vessels to carry on the lucrative French trade. A "Maritime Confederacy" had been formed, before the end of the year 1800, by Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden, to refuse to the British cruisers the right to search their vessels. These governments were able to bring together a naval power truly formidable; Russia had 47, Denmark 23, and Sweden 18 ships of the line, each having a corresponding complement of frigates. Thus, while the French were everywhere triumphant on land, a new force had risen up to supply that which had been annihilated at sea. The plan adopted was to attack and subdue these maritime powers in detail, before they could organize their combination.

2. COPENHAGEN.—An expedition of eighteen ships of the line, under Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson, proceeded early in March } spring through the Sound, to attack Copenhagen.  
1801. } The Danes had made great sacrifices to fortify their capital. The beacons in the places of difficult navigation were removed; gun-boats and floating batteries were dispersed here and there, and masses of rock were sunk to interrupt the passage. It was Nelson's peculiarity, however, that while he was impetuous and overwhelming in his method of attack, he was extremely cautious and exact in his preparations, leaving nothing to chance which could possibly be provided against. Niebuhr, the celebrated historian, who was in Copenhagen at the time, thus describes the manner in which Nelson, who was sent forward by Parker with the advanced squadron, took his measures:—"The English, from the first day of their arrival before the harbour, had caused frigates and cutters to sail and take soundings in all directions out of the range of our cannon; they had found ways which we had never explored, and marked them out with buoys; and we, who were obliged to confine our ill-manned fleet, in its disarmed and defenceless state, to mere defensive measures, had no power to hinder them. Thus had they (especially in the night after Nelson's division had stationed itself south of the end of our right wing) found and marked passes which no one had suspected to exist; for it had been taken for granted, from the earliest times, that the bed of the channel was here too narrow. Thus

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it was they were able to attack the block-ships, which, in their weak state, were not, as had been expected, defended by the intervening space." Thus had the course of events brought for the first time a hostile British fleet to the descendants of those sea-kings, who, many centuries earlier, had kept the coast of Britain in ceaseless alarm. Nelson found them the toughest foe with whom he had ever fought; but it was in vain to resist a fleet armed by men disciplined and experienced like his, and with such a commander. The land-defences were broken and battered down; many shells fell within the city, and did terrific damage. The sea-batteries, made of the hulks of old vessels, on which the Danes placed great reliance, were seized or destroyed, along with eleven of their  
 8d April } ships. Nelson now intimated to the Crown Prince  
 1801. } that he would be compelled to burn the remaining batteries unless the firing ceased. It was suspended, and in a conference on shore an armistice took place for fourteen weeks. This was to enable Nelson to deal with the Swedish and Russian fleets as he had done with the Danish.

But a circumstance took place which rendered unnecessary so direful an alternative. The Emperor Paul of Russia having  
 29d Mar. } been strangled—a not unnatural death for the mon-  
 1801. } arch of that despotic country—his successor, Alexander, changed the national policy, and courted alliance with England.

3. ALEXANDRIA.—It was a favourite scheme of Mr Dundas, that the British should measure their strength on land with the French in Egypt. The force under Sir Ralph Abercromby, which had just dislodged the French from Malta, was selected for this purpose. They effected a landing, to the number of  
 8th Mar. } 12,000 men, in the Bay of Aboukir, notwithstanding  
 1801. } considerable resistance from the French, who had great advantages in their position. Napoleon's veterans had, from their many successes on land, begun to deem themselves invincible, and to act as our troops do with the orientals—attack at all hazards. Though their commander, Menou, had a superior force, he would have acted wisely to remain on the defensive, at least until a favourable opportunity occurred for engaging; but he fell upon the British at once with a small detachment. The shock was formidable; but the British had now begun to show their peculiar character in war—the stern obstinacy with which they met the furious onsets of the French until the enemy's ardour became exhausted. Chiefly with the assistance of the Highland regiments, a brilliant victory was gained. It was greatly neutralized to the public,

however, by the loss of the brave and amiable commander, who had received a fatal musket-bullet, but concealed his wound until the fight was concluded. The two French armies subsequently evacuated Egypt.

Exhausted Europe was now eagerly desiring repose, and Britain, though long victorious by sea, and beginning to be so by land, was a severe sufferer by the protracted conflict. The continual drain of money, to supply not only our own but foreign armies, could not fail to tell on the resources of the country, and its effect had been deepened by more than one season of scarcity. It was not, however, to be the lot of the statesman who had ruled the war to bring it to an end. It was understood that Mr Pitt, while negotiating the union with Ireland, had held out expectations to the Roman-catholics of a relief from the penal laws. He found, however, if he was himself sincere in desiring emancipation, that the cabinet would not support him in conceding it. He accordingly re-  
 17th Mar. } signed, and was succeeded by Mr Addington, after-  
 1801. } wards Lord Sidmouth. The new minister was the son of a physician; and the aristocratic feeling ran so strong in the country that even the reformers, who disliked his policy, used to sneer at him by the name of the Doctor. The understood object of selecting him was to find a man who had sufficient ability, but little mind of his own, and who would submit to be entirely guided by Pitt's views. This arrangement proceeded at first as it was designed; but by degrees Addington beginning to have confidence in himself, found that he had personal supporters and flatterers who gave their influence rather to the ostensible and actual prime minister than to his adviser, and he gradually formed a separate party. Negotiations with France had been kept up during the greater part of the year 1801, and in bringing them to a conclusion the French had an advantage over the British in having heard before our government of the evacuation of Egypt. The peace was ratified at Amiens, and on the 29th of April 1802 it was proclaimed in London. None of the rejoicings for any of our victories were so expressive or sincere as those which welcomed the peace of Amiens.

4. But it was not destined to be a solid pacification. The various armaments belonging to both parties in different parts of the world continued their hostilities until the peace was communicated to them, and each found occasion to charge the other with being slow to observe it, when to overlook it afforded an opportunity of gaining an advantage. Napoleon having been elected first consul in May 1802, was now the supreme



ruler of France. He soon made it evident that his restless ambition would impel his country to new conquests. The refitting of the French navy on a large scale, and the preparation of new armaments, roused the jealousy of our government, and they charged France with failing to carry out the conditions of the treaty. On this ground they themselves refused to give up Malta, according to a condition of the peace. There is no doubt that this was done to retaliate the bad faith on the other side, but Britain would have held a higher position had her government shown a more sincere determination to observe the obligations they had undertaken. Lord Whitworth had been sent as ambassador to Paris, and he had an interview, momentous to the fate of Europe, with the ambitious and haughty first consul. It was evident that the latter desired war, but he did not wish to appear the aggressor, and he wound up a long address to the ambassador with a picture of the greatness that might surround the two powers—the one supreme on land, the other on the ocean—if they enjoyed a good understanding with each other. It is impossible to say whether Napoleon's conduct on this occasion was dictated by his passions or by profound dissimulation, but it was altogether unusual. At a meeting where the ministers of all the powers were assembled, he insulted Lord Whitworth like an angry bully. That nobleman, a firm, quiet, unimpassioned Englishman, bore the insult with dignified calmness, only intimating that, if such scenes were to be repeated, nothing but urgent business would induce him to hold an interview with the first consul again. The affair created much excitement at home, and made the resumption of hostilities, which occurred in May 1803, somewhat popular. Napoleon made the outbreak of this war remarkable, by issuing orders for the detention of all those British subjects whom curiosity or any other ordinary motive had brought to France during the short peace, and they were afterwards treated as prisoners. He alleged that he adopted this arbitrary proceeding in retaliation of the conduct of Britain, which on a declaration of war had been in the practice of immediately seizing the vessels in British harbours belonging to the subjects of the hostile power. Thus began a war of twelve years, the most gigantic in its scale of operations and the most important in its result of all the conflicts that have desolated Europe. The greater part of its events were only indirectly connected with this country, and more immediately concerned the fate and influence of the continental governments. But at two junctures—the one near the commencement, the other towards the close

of the struggle—the position of Britain was one of vital moment in the great conflict; and it is on these two points, passing over more rapidly the intermediate events, that it is chiefly important to dwell. The difference of opinion between Pitt and Addington becoming daily wider, the nominee was obliged to resign, and Pitt resumed the government in 1804. In the following year, he entered into an alliance with Russia and Sweden; but, notwithstanding this support, Britain never was in reality in so much danger from foreign conquest as in the year 1805: it was a danger unknown at the time, and its extent indeed was never fully developed until the secrets of Napoleon's proceedings were divulged nearly forty years afterwards by Thiers.

5. Having reached the highest pinnacle of his ambition at home by being crowned emperor, it was Bonaparte's intention to concentrate the vast military power at his command, and throw it at once on Great Britain. He found that, reserving a sufficient number of troops to protect his dominions and keep his other projects alive, he could send over 150,000 trained veterans. From his stringent conscriptions, which put all the male adults in France at his command, he could have destined a still more numerous force for this service; but as the difficulty of transporting them was extreme, it was a good economy to limit the number and look to the quality. Such a force of disciplined troops landed any where on our shores, without fortifications and with no one probably to resist them but the militia and volunteers of the district, or a few regular troops, must have immediately inflicted a severe blow on the country, however much we might trust to the patriotism and warlike spirit of the people for ultimately driving out the invaders. Napoleon's principle of action was that, as the one nation had the superiority at sea and the other the superiority on land, could the latter transfer the entire war to its favourite element it must certainly prove victorious. The world has perhaps never seen operations so gigantic as those which were carried on from 1803 to 1805 all along the coast from Holland, where the French were supreme, to Brest. Perhaps what might come nearest to them would be the great railway works going on in Britain in 1847; but these were the proceedings of a number of separate bodies, whereas the vast undertakings then in progress in France were at the will and disposal of one man. Cannon and other arms had to be manufactured—ships had to be built—harbours required to be prepared, and piers and moles constructed; and it was necessary to build fortifications for their protection. The victualling of

the army was organized on such a scale that the whole could embark at a moment's warning. For these purposes all the naval stores along the coast of France, Belgium, and Holland, were put at the disposal of the government. Able engineers, mechanics, and sailors, were brought from every spot where French influence could operate. Forests were cut down for wood to make piles and rafts, and districts were swept to provide subsistence for the army and the multitude of work-people engaged in the operations. The head-quarters of the camp were held at Boulogne, where Napoleon animated by his presence the labours of his zealous followers. But the great difficulty lay still in the passage across the Channel. "It is a vast and difficult operation," says Thiers, "to transport even 20,000 or 30,000 men beyond sea. The expedition to Egypt performed fifty years ago, and the expedition to Algiers undertaken in our own time, prove the truth of this. What must it be, then, when 150,000 soldiers are to be embarked, together with 10,000 or 15,000 horses, and 300 or 400 yoked cannon? A ship of the line may on the average convey 600 or 700 men, if the voyage do not occupy above a few days: a large frigate may carry half that number. Two hundred ships of the line therefore would have been required to contain such an army,—a naval force purely chimerical, and which the concurrence of England and France in one object could alone render conceivable." It was plain, then, that the ordinary method of conveying these troops must be abandoned. Ships require harbours both for embarking and landing, but all those on the coasts opposite to Britain would not have held a fleet sufficient for the purpose, nor would the harbours of Britain, supposing they were allowed peaceably to enter them, have sufficed to receive them. At the same time, even if they were so received, they would be scattered on various parts of the coast, while Napoleon wished his army to land as a concentrated body.

6. The scheme which he adopted was an original and bold one—indeed, it is held by some to be so rash and dangerous that he cannot have really entertained it, and that he must have intended it as a mere device, to make it be believed that the expedition, prepared for a totally different service, was destined for the coast of Britain. His plan was to build flat-bottomed boats—or rather rafts, with thick wooden walls round them, strongly fortified with cannon. These could be moved by oars, and if a favourable juncture occurred for their passing in safety, they could be run ashore anywhere on the beach, instead of requiring to be brought into harbours.

He exercised his men in suddenly embarking in these vessels, proceeding out a short space, and disembarking, and it was found that 25,000 men could be thus put on board in ten minutes. "In landing," says the French historian, "in the first place the coast was swept by a sustained fire of artillery, then the land was approached, and men, horses, and cannon thrown upon it. Frequently, when the shore could not be quite reached, the men jumped into the water at a depth of five or six feet. None were ever drowned—such was their address and agility. The horses even were sometimes landed in the same manner. Being pushed into the sea, men in small boats directed them with leather straps to the beach. Thus there was no condition incident to a debarkation upon a hostile coast that was not foreseen and several times confronted, even to the addition of all the difficulties that might have to be surmounted, as those arising from darkness for instance, with the exception only of an enemy's fire."

The remaining difficulty now was to get the flotilla safely across the Channel, without destruction by a British fleet. Of the power of our naval armament the camp at Boulogne had received a very lively impression. As the gunboats were brought along from the places where they were built to the general centre, however closely they kept to the shore, they were frequently attacked and destroyed. The works at Boulogne themselves were often cannonaded under Napoleon's own eye, and on one occasion a detachment was landed which burned and destroyed a number of the workhouses. No one could well say what havoc a fleet might make among vessels so unmanœuvrable as the flat-bottomed boats. Napoleon, who had determined to make his descent in July or August, had formed the design of concentrating all the vessels at his command, whether belonging to France or other countries, to act as a protecting fleet in the Channel. The difficulty here was to bring them together without their encountering any British force which might cut off the separate fleets on their way. Profound dissimulation was employed to accomplish this. All kinds of reports were circulated as to the destination of the French fleets. Two squadrons—the one at Toulon, the other at Rochefort—were ordered to proceed to the West Indies. When they had united there, and directed the eyes of Europe to their attempts on the British colonies, they were to return to the Channel. In an unfortunate hour for Spain she had gone to war with Britain, and her fleet, not very numerous, but consisting of vessels of enormous size and strong construction, was at the command of Napoleon. If his plans of concentra-

tion could be completely carried out, he calculated on having a fleet of sixty sail of the line to protect his flat-bottomed boats across the Channel.

7. TRAFALGAR.—Nelson now pursued the French fleets with extraordinary rapidity and vigilance. From various accidents, and deceived by false reports, he failed in coming up with them; but his sagacity taught him, from some of their proceedings, and especially from their anxiety to evade him while he had but a small force at his disposal, that there must be some deep mystery in their movements. He reached the West Indies in time to find that they had just returned to Europe. The combined French and Spanish fleets were put under the command of Admiral Villeneuve, and were on their way to form the intended junction, when they were met by Sir Robert Calder off Ferrol. The admiral attacked them with so  
 22d July. } much advantage that he took two ships, and disab-  
 1805. } ling some others compelled the enemy to seek safety by putting back to port. Yet so intoxicated had the nation become with naval glory, that this battle, which thwarted Napoleon's grand scheme for an invasion, was deemed very unsatisfactory. Villeneuve, still fearing to encounter Sir Robert Calder, notwithstanding the urgent commands of his emperor, took refuge in Cadiz at the very time when he was expected at Brest.

Nelson was now put in command of an increased force, and, amidst the confident rejoicings of the public, was sent against Villeneuve, whose position had thus become known. The French admiral, having suffered from an inferior commander, was naturally reluctant to meet Nelson, who had difficulty in tempting him out. At length he put to sea with thirty-three sail of the line, and confronted Nelson and Collingwood off Cape Trafalgar on the 21st of October. The British force was inferior not only in point of numbers, being but twenty-seven sail, but in the size of the vessels and the number of men. Villeneuve arranged his fleet under the protection of the shoals, in two crescents, the intervals between the ships in the front line being protected by the guns of the ships in the second line. This was thought an effective way of meeting the favourite British manoeuvre of breaking the line. Nelson gave the memorable signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty," and told his captains that, when they could not see signals, no one could do wrong in placing his ship alongside that of an enemy. This was the spirit in which the battle was fought. The general disposition of the fleet was of less moment than the hard fighting performed by each ship. Nel-

son and Collingwood, in two divisions, bore down and cut the line, the latter, being first engaged, encountering the huge Spanish ship, the *Santa Anna*. Nelson himself then singled out the great four-decked vessel, the *Santissima Trinidad*, and pouring in his terrible broadsides, cut through the line, and was followed by the other ships. The action now became general, and after continuing with great fury, abated as vessel after vessel struck. The one engaged by Nelson's ship, the *Redoubtable*, had been so disabled that he ordered the firing on her to cease. There were, however, some marksmen still engaged in her rigging; and as Nelson was conspicuous by the cross of the Bath embroidered on his coat—it was his usual dress—he was specially aimed at and mortally wounded. He was conveyed to the cabin, and learned before he expired that the victory was complete, and fifteen vessels had struck. His last words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty!" No pen can describe the effect produced in England by the news of his death: even the most glorious victory of the war, which swept the French fleet from the seas, could hardly reconcile the country to his loss. Honours were heaped upon his family; a public funeral and a monument in St Paul's cathedral were voted by the grateful nation. Yet, profound as was the grief at his untimely end, "he cannot," says Southey, "be said to have fallen prematurely whose work was done; nor ought he to be lamented who died so full of honours, and at the height of human fame. The most triumphant death is that of the martyr: the most awful, that of the martyred patriot: the most splendid, that of the hero in the hour of victory: and if the chariot and horses of fire had been vouchsafed for Nelson's translation, he could scarcely have departed in a brighter blaze of glory."

This decisive victory broke, for the time at least, the French marine—it annihilated that of Spain. But before it took place, and immediately after the check which his admiral had received from Sir Robert Calder, Napoleon abandoned his descent on Britain. Austria had given an excuse for an attack, by occupying Munich with troops; and with marvellous celerity the fine army of Boulogne was marched thither, where, coming upon the Austrian levies in detail and by surprise, it cut them off one by one. Great events took place in these continental wars; but the critical period for England was now over, and it would be almost tedious to mention the many smaller conflicts which took place in the Eastern and Western seas, in which several small squadrons of vessels were beaten and colonies from time to time taken.

8. William Pitt died on the 23d January 1806, at the age of forty-seven, oppressed by the weight of the important interests for which he was responsible. It was observed that the victory of Trafalgar had afforded him a visible relief as if from some matter immediately connected with his own safety, while Napoleon's victory at Austerlitz produced a like revulsion. He was succeeded by Lord Grenville, nominally at the head of the cabinet, but which took its tone from Charles Fox, who was the foreign secretary, and in history gives a name to the administration. Fox had three great objects at heart—the abolition of the slave trade, the relief of the Roman-catholics, and a European peace. He had made some progress towards the accomplishment of the first of these when his life was  
 18th Sept. } suddenly cut short, after he had been but seven  
 1806. } months in office. His death was deeply regretted, as it extinguished the hopes that Britain would at least try the experiment of exhibiting before the rest of Europe a liberal and high-toned policy, which disdained petty advantages gained by diplomatic intrigue. The vast expenditure which had for some years exhausted the nation created many charges not only of wastefulness but of peculation; and Lord Melville, who had filled high offices, especially that of first lord of the admiralty, was tried by impeachment. He was acquitted, his culpability extending only to negligence, which had made him pass over the misdeeds of a subordinate. The Grenville ministry was of short continuance. It brought forward a measure for the relief of the Roman-catholics, to which the king had  
 24th Mar. } decided objections. After having performed one  
 1807. } memorable service in the abolition of the slave trade, this ministry resigned, and was succeeded by that of Mr Spencer Percival.

9. Napoleon's great aim was still the humiliation of Britain. It was observed that after the battle of Trafalgar he never attempted to revive the navy—that, indeed, he generally treated it as a kind of secondary force beneath his notice. He now devised a plan of baffling his foe on land, by means of his  
 21st Nov. } command over nearly the whole of Europe. He  
 1806. } issued the celebrated Berlin and Milan decrees. By  
 27th Dec. } these he not only prohibited any goods conveyed  
 1807. } by British vessels or of British manufacture from being imported into France and the dominions dependent on himself, but he even prohibited the whole world from holding intercourse with Britain in any shape; and to make good this pretension, required that all importers of merchandise and commanders of vessels should produce certificates from the

proper French authorities, otherwise they were liable to capture. It had been an old practice that a power with a fleet at sea could declare any particular port or place to be in a state of blockade, and not open to commercial intercourse. But in this case, without any fleet to enforce them, Napoleon's decrees declared the whole of the British empire to be in

11th & 21st } this condition. The British government retali-  
Nov. 1807. } ated by the Orders in Council, which in fact just made that illegal which Napoleon's decrees demanded, rendering the vessels which contained French certificates liable to seizure, unless they should touch at a British port and obtain a certificate. As this country, however, was not a despotism, the Orders in Council were strenuously resisted at home as a great injury to commerce, and, after being modified, they were recalled. With the command of the sea, the British government had the chief power of enforcing their views; but, on the other hand, Napoleon, by his numerous armies and custom-house officers whom he distributed over the continent, could interrupt the landing and sale of our manufactures. Still, however, the energy and ingenuity of our merchants and manufacturers baffled the conqueror of Europe. Arkwright's inventions and the improvements in the steam-engine had wonderfully increased the cotton and woollen manufactures of the country. British fabrics produced by these inexhaustible sources could be sold at a third or a fifth of the price of the foreign article. The temptation was too strong to be resisted, and a regular system of competition went on, by which British manufactures found their way into the foreign markets, and many merchants and ship-owners were enriched, charging a per centage on the price of the goods for the risk and trouble attending the transactions. When the great continental coalition had been formed by the

7th July } peace of Tilsit, the Sound was about to be added to  
1807. } the other places whence English commerce was excluded by the French decrees; and it was understood that the Danish fleet, still considerable, was to be given up to France. A demand was made that it should be put at the disposal of Britain. This was refused, and a powerful squadron, under Lord

7th Sept. } Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, by bombarding Co-  
1807. } penhagen, enforced the surrender of the ships. The vindication of this act, the morality of which has been much questioned, was laid on the necessity of the case, the overwhelming force then arrayed against Britain, and the certainty that if our government did not, that of France would, get possession of the fleet. This was followed by the war in Spain



and Portugal, which will have to be described in the next chapter.

#### EXERCISES.

1. What alliance was concluded by Britain? What were the general results of the military operations which followed it? What was the conduct of the Emperor Paul? What were the circumstances in which Britain was placed as the chief maritime power? What was the maritime confederacy?

2. Give an account of Nelson's attack on Copenhagen? What were the farther designs against the Northern powers? What event rendered it unnecessary to pursue them?

3. What was Mr Dundas's project? How did the French act in Egypt? By whom was a victory gained over them? What effects were felt from the war? What caused Pitt's retirement? Who succeeded him? What expectations were formed of Addington? When was the peace of Amiens proclaimed?

4. How did France and Britain mutually accuse each other? What place was retained by Britain, and on what grounds? Who was at the head of the French government? What was the conduct of Napoleon to Lord Whitworth? What was the general nature of the war so far as Britain was concerned? What ministerial change took place?

5. What great design had Napoleon formed? How many men did he propose to land in Britain? What might be supposed most to resemble his great operations? Give a general account of the camp at Boulogne, and the organization connected with it. What were the main impediments to the sending over and landing the force?

6. Describe Napoleon's plan for bringing over his army in flat-bottomed boats. What indications had he of the power of the British fleet? What design had he formed for the protection of the flat-bottomed boats in the passage? What arrangements did he make for concentrating his fleets?

7. How was Nelson occupied? Describe the engagement between Sir Robert Calder and the French. What was thought of its result? Where were the French and Spanish fleets encountered by Nelson and Collingwood? Give an account of the battle of Trafalgar. What was its effect on the French naval force? To what quarter did Napoleon transfer the war?

8. What has been noticed about the latter days of Pitt? Who was at the head of the new cabinet? Whose name is generally associated with it? How long was Fox connected with it? Give an account of Lord Melville's impeachment. What brought the Grenville ministry to an end?

9. What was the great aim of Napoleon? Give an account of the Berlin and Milan decrees. In what manner did the British government retaliate? Describe the way in which the objects of the decrees were really defeated. What measure was adopted as to Copenhagen? What opinions have been entertained of the conduct of Britain on this occasion?

## CHAPTER XIII.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE PENINSULAR WAR TO THE  
FINAL CONCLUSION OF PEACE, A. D. 1808—1815.

**Alliance with Spain—Battle of Vimiera—Convention of Cintra—Sir John Moore—Walcheren Expedition—The Regency—Assassination of Mr Percival—The Luddites—Sir Arthur Wellesley—Liberation of Portugal—Albuera—Sieges of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz—Salamanca and Vittoria—Siege of St Sebastian—Battle of the Pyrenees—Toulouse—Fall of Napoleon and Treaty of Paris—The Hundred Days—Waterloo.**

1. THE expeditions which Britain had attempted on the continent of Europe had not hitherto been successful. An opportunity was now sought to meet Napoleon on his own peculiar element, by aiding some nation trying to shake off his yoke, and Spain afforded the desired battle-field. That country had been long governed by a wretched court-favourite, Emanuel Godoy, who, easily becoming the tool of France, entered into a treaty, or rather a conspiracy, with Napoleon for the partition of Portugal, a power friendly to England, on condition that he himself should obtain a share of the spoil. Thus Napoleon got a footing on the Peninsula. Not condescending to fulfil the treaty with Godoy, he professed to take a deep interest in the family quarrels between the King of Spain and his son; and with the avowed purpose of supporting the kingly authority, his troops gradually and by the most skilful management occupied all the Spanish fortresses. The old king resigned his crown to his son Ferdinand, whom, however, Napoleon had his reasons for not supporting. His rapacious views now became evident. The kings of Spain were a branch of the Bourbons, and he could not rest till that race was driven from the thrones of Europe, and replaced by his own family. When the plot was ripe for execution, Napoleon's brother, Joseph, was proclaimed King of Spain. Though degenerated from their ancient greatness, poor and indolent, the Spanish people retained their high spirit, and rose against this usurpation. All undisciplined as they were, in many instances they baffled and withstood the trained and veteran troops of France.

While contemplating the Peninsula as a means of checking the career of Napoleon, the ministry received support from an unexpected quarter. When the progress of events in France

turned from republicanism to a new royalty more despotic even than the old, the feelings of the liberal party in Britain underwent a corresponding change, and all were anxious to find means of checking a system which seemed ready to bring the whole world within its grasp. Mr Sheridan was the first  
 15th June } to stand up in the House of Commons in support of  
 1808. } the patriotic efforts of the Spaniards, but he only gave voice to the general feeling of the nation. In fact, every shape in which the war could be pursued was now intensely popular. Any one who dared to run counter to this feeling suffered severely for his temerity or honesty, and the nation saw without repining the war charges for one year exceed forty-eight millions sterling. It was evident that the struggle must be maintained on a great scale. Napoleon would not easily give up his recent brilliant acquisition. Fighting had become almost the trade of France, and fifteen years of continuous war with large armies had trained a vast assemblage of men for all its duties and dangers, from the marshal who had commanded in many a bloody field to the simple soldier of the line, inured to hardship and strict discipline. Napoleon had at one period of the contest 300,000 men in Spain; while our government, with all their exertions, were never able to keep more than 50,000 British soldiers in the Peninsula.

Two expeditions were in the first instance sent out to Portugal—one of 10,000 men, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had shown himself an able general in India; the other of 12,000, led by Sir John Moore. The French, under Junot, received a memorable lesson from the new enemy they had to contend with at the battle of Vimiera, where they were repulsed with great slaughter. The victory might have been followed up, and the fate of Portugal at once decided, but for the caution of the commander-in-chief, Sir Harry Burrard, an old and formal man. He was superseded by Sir Hew Dalrymple, a general of no bolder enterprise; and a convention  
 23d Aug. } was concluded at Cintra, on terms far too advanta-  
 1808. } geous to the French, who were to evacuate Portugal, but to be sent to France with all their baggage at the expense of the British.

2. Napoleon was now alarmed at the spirit shown by the Spaniards, the success of some of their enterprises, and the prospect of aid from Britain. With his usual promptitude he resolved to overrun the country, and crush opposition ere the English reinforcements should arrive. For this purpose he went in person with an army that rendered resistance hopeless, and, dispersing the central government which the

Spaniards had formed, took possession of Madrid. Believing, from the information which he had received, that the capital would hold out, Sir John Moore, joined by Sir David Baird, undertook the daring task of marching from Portugal to its rescue. He soon became aware of the imminent peril of his position. With a mere handful of men he found himself in the centre of an immense circle of French armies, without the support from the provisional Spanish government which he had been led to expect. Napoleon immediately arranged his plans with a view to crush him. One part of his force was to cut off the British retreat on Portugal, the other to encounter it in front, and these dispositions were effected by unparalleled marches over great mountain ranges. But the emperor had now to encounter one whose resources in adversity were fit to cope with his own in prosperity. Moore immediately retreated northwards, breaking down the bridges and otherwise interrupting the progress of the French, at the same time inflicting severe chastisement on attacking parties. At length, after incredible sacrifices and hardships, he reached the coast at Corunna, where transports had arrived to receive his troops. There he was attacked by a superior force, which, after a determined battle, he drove back with great loss; so that the men were embarked unmolested. In the midst of victory Moore himself was killed by a cannon-ball, and he was hastily buried in the ramparts, wrapped in his military cloak.

3. Before describing how the peninsular war was resumed with more effect, it is necessary to refer to a less creditable expedition undertaken by our government in another quarter, where our arms seemed ever doomed to miscarry. A large fleet was assembled in the Downs, accompanied by gun-boats, the whole affording accommodation for a hundred thousand men. It appeared at last that something was to be done worthy of the British name. It was to be a secret expedition, but its destination was known by the vigilant enemy long ere it sailed. It was to proceed to the islands and peninsulas of South Holland, whose rich towns and abundant shipping might afford the means of striking a severe blow at the French power there. The command of the expedition, instead of being given to some officer of tried ability, was conferred on the Earl of Chatham, the elder brother of William Pitt, a court favourite, who had none of the family qualifications, except a personal resemblance to his father and a considerable degree of pride. His indolence was notorious; and when the most active and indefatigable energy was necessary, he was slow and pedantic. Such an armament could not fail

to gain advantages, but they were of comparatively little moment. They had to encounter a worse enemy than the French; for, having taken possession of the island of Walcheren, it was found, when the troops were put into quarters, that they possessed no means of precaution against the unhealthiness of the climate. They died in thousands, and at last the miserable remnant were glad to return in safety.

4. The malady which had threatened George III. in early life reappeared in 1810, in his fiftieth year, and thenceforth he continued a confirmed lunatic. After much discussion, his eldest son, afterwards George IV., was appointed to represent him as regent. He had been the friend of Fox and Sheridan, and it was believed that he would restore the whig party to power; but he had changed his opinions, and retained the services of the tory ministry. An attempt which was made to form a coalition was interrupted by an event of a kind fortunately of rare occurrence in this country. While passing through the lobby of the House of Commons, Mr Percival  
 11th May } was shot dead by a man named Bellingham, whose  
 1812. } ungovernable and malignant passions had been roused by some fancied neglect. He was succeeded by Lord Liverpool; and Lord Castlereagh, who had for some time been foreign secretary, remained in that office, then more than usually responsible, as it inferred the conduct of the war. The orders in council had had the effect of interrupting our connexion with America, and, even after they were revoked, of causing a war with the States. In this contest our vessels sometimes met with their match on the ocean, but the conflicts were merely between individual ships, for the jealousy of the Americans has never allowed them to intrust an admiral with the command of a powerful fleet. In the eastern and western seas the last vestige of the colonial empire of France had disappeared. With all the mercantile and industrial energy of this country, however, it was impossible that Napoleon's decrees and the orders in council could fail to cripple trade. Bands of workmen were thrown out of employment, and in their mistaken rage they combined for the destruction of machinery, believing that the new inventions were the cause of their misery. These misguided men, called Luddites, created great alarm through the country, and were subject to the special vengeance of the law. The Bank-restriction act had now been for some time in operation, and gold and silver had nearly disappeared from the country. This circumstance became an important object of inquiry. The celebrated Report of the Bullion Committee, presided over by Mr Horner, was

the result, and the speedy resumption of cash payments was recommended.

5. Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent with some reinforcements to Portugal, where Soult had established himself, and was speculating on setting up an independent kingdom of which he would be the head. By the earliest operations of the campaign he was driven across the frontier, and joined Ney at Santiago with only the shattered remains of his troops. Combining with the native army, the British now pressed towards Madrid, and when met by a large body of the French at Talavera, gained a complete victory over them, with a loss to the enemy of seventeen guns and 9000 men. But the same evil which had beset Sir John Moore—false intelligence—rendered this victory nearly nugatory. Just in time to make a safe retreat, the British general found that, without any effective aid from the Spaniards, he was likely to be placed between two French armies, each sufficient to crush him. He now returned to Portugal, retaining possession of the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, which had been captured; and the French generals were blamed for having lost so excellent an opportunity of exterminating the British force. Wellesley, now created Lord Wellington, saw that while his army continued so small he must fortify himself in Portugal, and watch his opportunities for aiding Spain. He formed a project, therefore, for retiring to the heights of Torres Vedras, near Lisbon. These he had fortified by powerful lines of works; and thus he remained secure, with his face to the enemy and his back to the sea, by which he could obtain abundance of provisions for his troops, and keep up a regular communication with his government. Spain was now overrun and almost entirely subdued by the French armies, and reinforcements were sent to attack Portugal.

The Peninsula, which appears so compact on the map, is divided by great ranges of mountains into separate provinces. These, which were once distinct nations, have been accustomed to have little intercourse or sympathy with each other, and therefore there were few means for concentrated action. The government had been taken in hand by small bodies in the cities, called Juntas, among whom jobbing and intrigue flourished rankly, especially in the distribution of the large sums of money and the quantities of arms received from England; but they gave no effective support to the peasantry in their courageous efforts, and were utterly ignorant of the nature and power of highly disciplined armies such as the French possessed. The war was one of peculiar savageness

and barbarity. It was not a conflict between armies accustomed to the rules of war, but a struggle to shake off oppressors; and the peasantry when they were victorious showed little mercy to those who fell into their hands. This reacted on the French soldiery, who avenged the fate of their companions, while their leaders were often tempted by the valuable plate in the monasteries and other places to enrich themselves by spoil. The evils which the British suffered at the beginning of the war arose from a desire to consult the feelings of the Spaniards and fairly co-operate with them; but it was found that the leaders were boastful and vain—that they made promises it was impossible for them to keep, and had an insatiable craving for British gold. They were jealous, too, of military assistance, believing, in the proud remembrance of their ancient power, that if they had arms and provisions enough they could meet any troops in the world. Their priests at the same time discouraged them from co-operating with the English, for whom they felt more hatred than good-will. Nor indeed had our troops so great a claim on their gratitude as some have maintained, since it was not for the liberation of Spain but the overthrow of Napoleon that we fought. All these things considered, Lord Wellington was compelled to give up every idea of co-operation, and to work as well as he could with the small British force put at his disposal, adding to it from time to time such Portuguese as were trained and fit for service.

6. With twenty-five thousand British troops and thirty thousand Portuguese thus collected, he watched the approach of Massena's army, exceeding one hundred thousand men, with the services of Regnier, Ney, and Junot. Ciudad Rodrigo was retaken, for it was impossible to assist it in the face of such a host. All Portugal was in frantic terror, and the capital was filled with crowds of fugitives. The necessity of restoring confidence rendered it expedient to face the enemy, and the British repulsed a large force under Massena at Busaco. This commander, however, felt assured of driving them into a corner, and there exterminating them. His surprise was therefore great when Wellington retired within the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras, quietly created during the period of leisure, without the French having any knowledge of their existence. They baffled every effort to break them; and Massena's army, large as it was, with this barrier in front, and harassed by the straggling natives in the rear, while all its supplies were cut off, became gradually exhausted. Massena was obliged to retreat, harassed by the British and the natives, and leaving

behind him forty-five thousand victims of battle and hardship. A retreat such as this was something so different from what the French had then recently been accustomed to, that it exasperated their temper, and they vented their hatred in horrible cruelties on the unfortunate peasantry.

7. Although there were still nearly three hundred thousand Frenchmen in Spain, Wellington crossed the frontier, and resolved to carry the war seriously into that country. The first step was to besiege Badajos, a fortress the possession of which was necessary for a safe passage. Small progress had been made when Soult approached with a large force. He was met by Beresford and Hardinge, who fought with him the bloody battle of Albuera. It cost more lives in proportion to the number engaged than any other during the war, in consequence of the British making up for their disadvantages by hard fighting. The French were dispersed, and the moral effect of their defeat was great, for it changed their hearty confidence to a cautious hesitation when they encountered British troops; and the news spreading through Spain roused the sinking enthusiasm of the patriots, who now saw that relief was not absolutely hopeless. The attempt on Badajos was in the meantime abandoned, and the immediate object became the recovery of Ciudad Rodrigo. The renewed outbreaks and successes of the Spaniards calling off the large French force, an opportunity was found for an attack when such a step was least expected. It required to be hastily executed, otherwise the siege would be raised. After a heavy cannonading a breach was effected. By this the fort was stormed, though no means of resistance and of  
 19th Dec. } scattering destruction among the assailants were  
 1811. } neglected by the skilful defenders. The desperate hand to hand fighting and the fearful slaughter roused the latent ferocity of the British troops, and they committed excesses in the captured city which brought discredit on their country. It was next resolved to attack Badajos before the French could make arrangements to prevent it. The means of defence were on a magnificent and highly scientific scale; and the assault was made by the whole mass pressing forward, regardless of the frightful slaughter which compelled them to pass over the heaped up bodies of their slain fellow-soldiers. Among the other impediments which the ingenuity of the garrison had devised and fixed in the breach were ponderous beams, studded with sword-blades, which yielded and turned like the flappers of a mill, and involved in destruction those who attempted to tread upon them. The important fortress, valuable not only for its strength but the stores it



7th April } contained, was taken with great loss ; and the storm-  
 1812. } ing was followed by excesses still worse than those  
 which had occurred at Ciudad Rodrigo. An engagement  
 soon after followed at Salamanca, in which Marmont, who  
 was impatient to drive back the English ere that honour could  
 be shared by his superiors in command, was repulsed with  
 terrible slaughter, and narrowly escaped with a portion of his  
 army. Disaster after disaster produced the usual effect. The  
 Spaniards gained spirit—the invaders became confused and  
 desponding. The British and their allies marched steadily  
 onwards ; and as they approached, Joseph Bonaparte with his  
 dependants fled, and Madrid was peaceably entered on the  
 12th of August 1812. Still, however, insufficiently aided by  
 the native authorities, Wellington's greatly reduced force was  
 not fit to cope with a concentrated army of the French. He  
 was engaged in the siege of Burgos when the approach of a  
 large body of the enemy showed that retreat was necessary.  
 The French principle of war was that of bringing together  
 large armies and gaining victories at any cost of life—the  
 British required a commander to be careful of his men, and to  
 husband his resources ; and in obedience to this principle,  
 Wellington brought back his troops to Ciudad Rodrigo, where  
 ample preparations had been made to keep them in good con-  
 dition for future service.

8. The winter of 1812 was employed in bringing the army  
 into discipline. It was now reinforced from England. The  
 French emperor had in the meantime made his fatal expedition  
 to Russia, and the Germans, on whom he had trampled, were  
 recovering their national spirit. It seemed as if the hour for  
 avenging insulted Europe had arrived. Wellington was in  
 good condition to take advantage of it. Between the native  
 recruits and the reinforcements from Britain he was now at the  
 head of 200,000 men, many of them fully disciplined and  
 trained to war. The route was taken towards Burgos, whence  
 the retreat had been made, and the fortifications were blown  
 up. The French troops and authorities now effectually evac-  
 uated Madrid. They had pressed on, with the despondence  
 of fugitives, and loaded with heavy baggage, to Vittoria ; and  
 there, by skilful management, in Napoleon's own peculiar  
 manner, several detachments of the allies met at once and com-  
 posed a formidable army. The French behaved at first with  
 the gallantry of their nation ; but after being broken, chiefly  
 by the bold conduct of General Graham, they fled in wild  
 confusion, leaving behind them such a booty as a field of battle  
 seldom exhibits. King Joseph and his followers had resolved

to secure at least as many memorials of Spanish dominion as they could carry with them, and they dragged along waggons containing bullion, jewellery, and all kind of objects most valuable and easily conveyed. These, with the Spanish archives and much secret correspondence of the Bonaparte family, became the spoil of the victors.

But Napoleon, ever fertile in resources, was determined not to resign the Peninsula without a struggle. He appointed Soult to collect together the wrecks of the different armies; but it was no longer in Spain, but in Bayonne on the French side of the Pyrenees, that they could safely assemble. A gleam of success now appeared to revisit the French arms, for the large force still remaining drove back the smaller parties of the allies. While the British were engaged in the siege of St Sebastian, Soult determined to make a bold eruption through the passes of the Pyrenees, near Roncesvalles. The attacks were made with impetuosity, but they were too steadily met to be successful, and after a series of defeats the French  
 Aug. } retired on their own territory. The several bitter con-  
 1813. } flicts in these mountain passes are known by the general title of the battle of the Pyrenees. The siege of St Sebastian was resumed, after Soult had been driven back. The garrison earned much renown by their heroic defence. The plan of storming was again resorted to. The ingenuity of the garrison had, as in other instances, provided unexpected difficulties. When, after a skilful cannonade, a breach had been made, it was found to be quite impracticable, and from the arrangements within all who attempted it were doomed to death. But the resources of the besiegers were at least equal to those of the gallant garrison. After the storming party had exhausted every effort to enter the breach, and the result of each attempt was the sweeping down of the assailants by the defenders above, Dickson, who commanded the artillery on some sand-banks, found a new way of aiding the besiegers, by pointing his cannon on a line over their heads, so as to sweep the broken rampart of its defenders. This had the desired effect, and the breach was made practicable, admitting the British troops, now rendered furious by the opposition they had encountered, to fight hand to hand with the  
 31st Aug. } garrison. St Sebastian was added to the other  
 1813. } great victories over fortified places for which this war was remarkable. As the defence had been the most resolute and the attack the most determined that had occurred in the Peninsular war, so also the licentiousness and ruffianism of the victorious army were more fearfully developed than

ever. The experience derived on this occasion, when officers lost all command, and the disciplined soldier at once became a savage with all the acquired propensities of civilisation, showed that the system of storming, however effective it might be, was not conducive to the good conduct of an army.

9. There was but one of these great frontier fortresses now remaining—Pampeluna, for the reduction of which Wellington had to wait ere he invaded "the sacred soil of France." He was in a position very much like that which a century earlier had been held by Marlborough at the other extremity of the country. Soult had established a line of strong fortifications, the reduction of which took time and exertion, and occasioned several sanguinary conflicts, each of which would have been conspicuous in history had they not been preceded and followed by so many important events. Ere winter set in the Anglo-Spanish army had achieved an effective settlement within the bounds of France, and they were quartered in the towns along the Bay of Biscay, where the ample funds devoted by Britain to the war procured them abundant supplies.

But other armies were now pressing forward. Upwards of a million of men—whom his own ambitious wars had converted into trained soldiers—were arrayed against Napoleon. Resolute as ever, he drained France again after its youth and manhood seemed to have been already exhausted; but no conscriptions or combinations could produce an army sufficient to cope with his opponents. Yet the French gained many brilliant victories during this short campaign, and, among them, the great battle of Montereau against the Austrians. The congress of Chatillon was meanwhile confirming the union of the various powers hostile to France. While the Austrian royal family had an interest in not driving Napoleon to extremities, Britain, as the fountain from which their pecuniary supplies were drawn, was able in a great measure to dictate the terms to be agreed to. The main condition insisted on was the limitation of France to something near its old boundary—the question of the succession to the throne being left untouched, as a matter for the French people to settle. Now, however, the peaceful Bourbons thought that the universal carnage of Europe was working to its proper result, and preparing for them a peaceful and well-protected kingdom. One of them, the Duke of Angouleme, insisted on entering France by attaching himself to the camp of Wellington, whom his presence somewhat embarrassed. When hostilities were resumed in 1814, several obstinate engagements took place with the indomitable Soult. They ended in the victory of Toulouse,

which was accompanied with great loss to Wellington's army. The surrender of Paris to the allies rendered further resistance useless, and the British troops, after a lapse of five centuries, once more entered the old capital of the south in triumph. The news from Paris announced the abdication of Bonaparte, who was sent to the island of Elba, and the proclamation of Louis XVIII., in which the people of the southern departments heartily joined, and the British forces were removed from the continent. London was a scene of magnificent gaiety in the summer of 1814, from the resort thither of many of the princes of Europe and the heroes of the war, among whom the half-civilized Prussian Blucher attracted much curiosity and attention. It was not the least curious token of the respect paid to him in England that he received high university honours.

10. The world seemed once more at rest, and the thoughts of men were turned towards the disbanding of armies, the resumption of peace establishments, and the renovation of the exhausted nations, when Europe was electrified by the intelligence that Napoleon had left Elba, had landed in France, and had gathered around him his old troops, who were as devoted to him as ever. The Bourbons of course fled at once; and Napoleon immediately organized a government, which, from the time it lasted, was called the Reign of the Hundred Days. There was now good ground for Europe to be alarmed. The troops of the allies were dispersed or broken up—those of Napoleon were united. He never showed his powers of organization in more complete activity. Two armies were speedily arrayed against him; one, consisting chiefly of Prussians, was under the command of Blucher—the other, composed of about 30,000 English, and 50,000 Germans, Belgians, and Dutch, was committed to Wellington. It was their object to unite in the Low Countries, and remain on the defensive, until the rest of the allied forces were reassembled, and then all together would march on Paris. Napoleon, resuming his old tactics, resolved to anticipate them—to enter the Low Countries with his compact army so expeditiously as to attack and if possible beat them one after the other. To aid this Ney endeavoured to occupy the position of Quatre Bras, so called because there four roads met, leading respectively to Brussels, Nivelles, Charleroi, and Namur; and thus commanding the communication between the two armies. It seemed at first as if Napoleon's plans were to be again successful. Blucher fought incautiously at Ligny, and was driven back, being left for dead upon the field. Nearly at the same time Ney maintained a sharp contest with a portion of the allied

army at Quatre Bras, till Wellington, coming up with a superior force, compelled him to retire.

11. WATERLOO.—The British general then moved off by Gemappe to a place near the old Flemish village of Waterloo, which he had inspected before, and believed to be the point best adapted for resisting an army on its way to Brussels. It was a wide valley, between two gentle hills, affording room for the operations of large bodies of troops. The dense forest of Soignies stretched far behind, while a village and an old mansion-house afforded points of attack and defence. In the latter, called Hougomont, a portion of the British force had taken refuge early in the day, and it was held out as a sort of fortification to the last.

It was at eleven o'clock on the 18th of June that this memorable battle was begun by the French; for down to the last movement Napoleon was the attacking party, his policy being to destroy the British army, and then annihilate the Prussians; while that of Wellington was to hold out until he was reinforced by Blucher, who had sufficiently recovered to rally his troops, and was bringing them slowly on through cross roads. It would be impossible within a short space to describe in an intelligible manner the many events of that day of carnage, or do justice to the grand operations of the commander-in-chief, or the heroism of Ponsonby, Picton, and other officers of rank. The general tenor of the fight was, that as the French were superior in numbers, and especially in the proportion they had of trained veteran troops, their charges were resisted by steady firmness until they were gradually weakened down to the level of their opponents. In these charges, the large bodies of French cavalry and infantry, descending into the hollow, moved up the other side until they were met and driven back. Except on these occasions the hollow between the two armies remained unoccupied, unless by small parties engaged in secondary movements, while the cannon on either side fired across from army to army. The most effective instruments in the attacks made by the French were their cuirassiers, a cavalry clad in mail. As they dashed forward, the British received them in squares, which were found impregnable to their most furious assaults; and as on each occasion they had to retreat, they were mowed down by cannon. About seven o'clock in the evening, Napoleon determined to make one last great effort, by moving forward his whole line. After it was received and repulsed, the system of resistance was at once changed by Wellington, who ordered the whole line forward. The sound of cannon now announced the approach

of Blücher. The magnificent army of France fell into confusion and took to flight, pursued by the Prussians, who had many wrongs to avenge. The battle of Waterloo, much as it has been admired as a mere feat of arms, has established a more lasting interest from its being the expiring struggle in the most dreadful contest that ever desolated Europe, and forming the basis of a long peace. The various armies of the allied powers marched on to Paris, determined to deprive the country of the means of again disturbing the tranquillity of Europe. There a general treaty was entered into, subjecting France to many humiliations and some hardships. Napoleon had, in the meantime, given himself up to the commander of a British man-of-war, declaring, with much plausibility, that he came to seek the protection of a steady but generous enemy. It was deemed necessary that he should be effectually prevented from again pursuing his schemes of ambition and conquest, and he spent the remainder of his days in the distant island of St Helena, guarded by British ships of war. This country was accused of ungenerous harshness for thus treating a fallen enemy, but the peace of the world was held too important to be weighed against generosity to an individual.

## EXERCISES.

1. What opportunity was sought by Britain? What was the state of Spain? How did Napoleon get a footing on the Peninsula? What designs did he entertain? How were they received by the Spanish people? How was the proposal to carry the war into the Peninsula received in Britain? What was the state of the French forces there? What expeditions were fitted out? What battle was gained? What convention was concluded?

2. What resolution did Napoleon adopt? What position did Sir John Moore find himself in? How did he act? Describe his retreat. What success did he gain? What was his fate?

3. Where was a less creditable expedition undertaken? To whom was the command of it given? Why was the choice reprehensible? To what results did it lead?

4. What change took place in the king's health? Who was appointed regent? What change had his opinions undergone? What crime interfered with the ministerial arrangements? Who succeeded Percival? What caused a war with America? For what was it remarkable? Describe the domestic state of the country. Who were the Luddites? What inquiry was made?

5. Who was sent to Portugal? What was accomplished at Talavera? What position did the British commander find himself in? What place was he obliged to abandon? Describe his retreat, and his method of protecting his army at Torres Vedras. What is the geographical nature of the Peninsula? What kind of governments existed in Spain? Describe their conduct. What reception did the Spaniards give to the British?

6. What forces were at the disposal of the British general? What took place at Busaco? What operations surprised the French? What were the effects on both armies of the occupation of Torres Vedras? What effect had disappointment on the temper of the French troops?

7. Who fought the battle of Albuera? What was the moral effect of this engagement? How was Ciudad Rodrigo taken? What was the next capture? How was Badajos defended? What took place at Salamanca? What took place at Madrid? What was the principle on which the British conducted the war as contrasted with Napoleon's system?

8. How was the winter of 1812 spent? What had occurred to Napoleon before hostilities had recommenced? What amount of force was now at the command of Wellington? How was the battle of Vittoria gained? What kind of booty was gained at it? What efforts did Napoleon make? How was St Sebastian taken? What followed its capture?

9. What was Wellington's position? What other general had been in a position resembling it? Describe the situation of Napoleon with respect to the European powers. What arrangements were proposed at the congress of Chatillon? What was the conduct of the Bourbons? What took place at Chatillon? Who resorted to London in 1814?

10. What event astonished Europe? What was called the Reign of the Hundred Days? Give an account of the military organization against Napoleon? What took place at Quatre Bras?

11. Where did the British general take up his position? Give an account of the battle of Waterloo. What consequences gave it its chief importance? What measures did the allies adopt? How was Napoleon disposed of?

## CHAPTER XIV.

FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF PEACE TO THE MIDDLE OF THE  
NINETEENTH CENTURY, A. D. 1815—1850.

Bombardment of Algiers—Manufacturing Distress—Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act—Manchester Riots—Death of the Princess Charlotte—George IV.—Cato Street Conspiracy—Queen's Trial and Death—Burmese War—Panic of 1825—Canning Ministry—Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts—Roman-catholic Emancipation Act—Amendment of the Criminal Laws—The New Police—Corn Laws—William IV.—The Reform Ministry—Political Unions—Riot at Bristol—Passing of the Reform Bill—Abolition of Slavery in the Colonies—New Poor Law Bill—Melbourne Administration—Municipal Reform Bill—Victoria—Rebellion in Canada—The Chartist Riots—Marriage of the Queen—Syrian War—Penny Postage System—Peel Administration—Chinese War—New Tariff—Afghan War—Repeal of the Corn Laws—Railway Panic—Sikh War.

1. A LONG peace now commenced, which, down to the middle of the century, has suffered no interruption with regard to our connexion with the other European powers. There have, however, been, from time to time, conflicts and acquisitions of territory in our Indian empire; while, in 1816, an expedition under Lord Exmouth was sent to Algiers, to compel the Dey to liberate all the Christian slaves in his possession. After a tremendous bombardment, which destroyed half the city, the captives were surrendered, and the depredations of the Barbary pirates effectually checked, so far at least as Great Britain was concerned.

But even the restoration of a general peace, under the circumstances in which the country was placed, brought its own peculiar anxieties. The nation had borne the whole brunt of the conflict. Other states did not possess the means, had they felt the inclination, to support the gigantic armies necessary to preserve the independence of Europe. The system was thus necessarily maintained by the industry and accumulated wealth of this country. The return of peace did not, therefore, bring with it what we had thus lost; on the contrary, it only made the loss visible. While we were spending vast sums of money on armies and their accoutrements—employing bakers, tailors, smiths, and ship builders—we seemed rich, and the people prosperous, just as a man who squanders his fortune



appears rich while his money lasts, and the people on whom he spends it are well pleased. But it was otherwise when the expenditure ceased, and accounts had to be paid. The national debt had accumulated in an appalling manner, and formed a political feature in itself of an unprecedented kind. At the beginning of the war it amounted to two hundred and sixty millions of pounds; at the end, it had risen to eight hundred and sixty millions. The cessation in the demand for agricultural and manufacturing produce which immediately followed the peace, caused the reduction of many establishments, and thus created much distress among the working classes, who in their turn exhibited the discontent which almost always accompanies want of employment. A dangerous degree of turbulence and restlessness pervaded the country during the few remaining years of the reign of George III. Large meetings were held, and seditious harangues delivered, while the outbursts of popular fury, which were in general the result of suffering and of ignorance of its cause, were sometimes directed into the channel of a demand for parliamentary reform. Several acts of outrage had been committed, especially by a number of people assembled at Spitalfields in 1816, who marched in procession through London, and almost threatened a revival of the scenes enacted in Lord George Gordon's riots. On one occasion some missile, supposed to have been a bullet from an air-gun, nearly struck the prince regent, as he was returning from the House of Lords. The government, alleging that a dangerous conspiracy existed, employed spies to enter into the consultations of the ringleaders, with a view of exposing their plans. These men, of course, found it necessary to profess more than ordinary zeal in the cause of their companions. As all their movements were admitted to be treacherous and false, it was often maintained that they treated their employers with no more fidelity than their victims; that their accounts of what they professed to have observed were often exaggerated and untrue; and that, in many cases, they themselves urged on their dupes to commit treason. There was certainly, however, a very lively alarm throughout the country, and the newspapers were filled with horrible discoveries of the designs of the conspirators. The two houses of parliament appointed committees, who reported that secret oaths were taken, arms collected, and organizations ramified all over England, to effect a general rising against the state. The Habeas Corpus act, which enables every person who is imprisoned to come before a court, and have the cause of his imprisonment publicly investigated, was suspended; and a series of laws, called the Six Acts, most of

them of a temporary nature, were passed for the restriction of public meetings, clubs, and political publications. Some men who were found to be the most deeply involved were executed, and others received secondary punishments. The feelings of the aristocracy and the middle classes were at this time strongly excited, by their fears, against the working classes, and some lamentable instances occurred of the want of harmony between them. A woful illustration of this took place at Manchester in 1819. A large meeting was held there to petition for parliamentary reform. It amounted to sixty thousand people, and it was said that they consisted of persons of violent habits and evil views. However this may be, the meeting in itself was quiet and orderly, nothing but its numbers making it formidable. While it was transacting the business of the day, a troop of horse, having authority from the magistrates of the district, dashed into the throng, creating a frightful scene of confusion and danger, and many persons, some of them females, were cut down with sabres. This event, regretted by the moderate friends of order, roused the democrats to fury. It was long remembered as "The Manchester Massacre;" and as the open space where it was held bore the name of Peterfield, it was denominated the battle of Peterloo, as a parody on Waterloo.

2. During these unpleasant affairs several painful domestic events occurred in the royal family. The prince regent had an only daughter, the Princess Charlotte, an amiable and accomplished woman, who was much beloved by the people, from a conviction that she disliked the severe measures of her father's government. In 1816, she married Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, and the country expected to see her and her descendants occupying the throne; but it was destined otherwise. On the 5th of November 1817, she gave birth to a still-born child, and died next day. The grief of the nation was expressed on this occasion in a manner very unusual in the British people towards members of the royal family, and many were even said to entertain the strange notion that she had not been allowed to die a natural death. She was soon followed by her grandfather, the king, who had spent so many years in mental unconsciousness. He died on the 29th January 1820. Whatever differences of opinion existed about his political principles, all were of one mind as to his private virtues, his temperance, affection, piety, and adherence to his word. Britain had passed through a very brilliant but perilous era in the sixty years during which he reigned. Her military triumphs were, however, far from being the noblest

of her achievements. She had produced great names in literature and art, and especially in science, which had made wonderful strides in the furtherance of the useful arts, and multiplied the means of production to an extent of which none could have dreamed. There was a heavy pressure on the country in his latter years, and gloomy anticipations were formed; but we now know what the natural elasticity of our industrious and enterprising people has since that day accomplished, and that all its burdens were insufficient to check the onward progress of the nation.

3. GEORGE IV., who had long held the actual reins of government, was now proclaimed king. The commencement of his reign was marked by unpleasant events, which had been some time in preparation. A gang of ruffians, with one Arthur Thistlewood at their head, had entered into a conspiracy to murder all the members of the privy-council, as they assembled at the residence of Lord Harrowby. It was discovered in good time, and Thistlewood and four of his associates were hanged. The affair was named the Cato Street Conspiracy. Many vague fears were entertained that this was only part of some wide-spread project, and the opinion was unfortunately justified by exhibitions of restlessness and turbulence in the manufacturing districts. It was in the west of Scotland, however, that the excitement was most dangerous. There a few men actually went out in arms to a place called Bonnymuir, where they were easily dispersed. They had expected to form part of a vast armed assemblage, but were miserably disappointed. It fortunately has almost always been the fate of turbulence in this country to find itself utterly powerless as a political engine; and the failure in this rising did more to keep the people quiet than all the coercive measures of the government.

A new cause of national excitement now appeared in the domestic position of the king. He had long been estranged from his queen, Caroline of Brunswick, and they were on the very worst terms with each other. After having lived on the continent for some years, she returned home, and claimed the privileges of a queen of England. She was met by charges of very gross and criminal conduct. There was no distinct law applicable to such a case; but the plan was suggested of passing a special act of parliament for her degradation, should the evidence that might be adduced justify it. Accordingly, a bill of pains and penalties was brought into the House of Lords. Evidence was taken at great length, and counsel were heard on both sides, the defence of the queen being chiefly committed

to a well known barrister—Henry, afterwards Lord Brougham. Among all that was questioned, two things were established beyond doubt—the one, that the king had used his wife with much cruelty; the other, that when neglected by her husband, instead of betaking herself to dignified and virtuous retirement, she had kept low company, and had been at least indecorous in her own conduct. An injured queen is generally an object of popular sympathy. Much of the evidence of the witnesses was set down by the populace as the statement of hired perjurers, and the excitement in her favour seemed to threaten the peace of the country, should the charges against her be pushed to extremities. But there were strong doubts in many quarters how far the evidence adduced was satisfactory. The

Nov. } third reading of the bill was carried by a majority of only  
1820. } nine, and it was abandoned by the ministers to the great joy of the populace. The queen died on the 7th of August, in the ensuing year; and as all sorts of surmises naturally follow such an event, her funeral excited a considerable tumult in London.

4. Besides some questions which demanded British intervention in the peninsula and in Greece, the chief foreign operations of this reign were in India. Several turbulent tribes had from time to time interfered with the British possessions by invading them, in the hope of constituting themselves the governors of the docile people, who preferred the British rule to that of their fierce neighbours. The universal result of such inroads was the subjection of the aggressors, and an accession of territory. It seemed as if the British dominion in the East had its natural boundary in the mighty river Ganges, beyond which lay the powerful Birman empire. From this side, however, disturbances also arose. The origin of the dispute was a curious one. The Burmese were not the original inhabitants of the country, but being a hardy race, had brought the native tribes into subjection. It became a practice for the peaceable people along the borders to seek protection within the British territories, and settle there in large numbers. The Burmese government, being determined to punish and thereby prevent such desertions, often broke through in pursuit, and in various ways infested the British dominions, until it became necessary to check their inroads. This occasioned a war; for, like many of the Eastern potentates, they thought they could crush the British power in Hindostan at once. It was found necessary to retaliate their aggressions by an invasion, which terminated in victory, and was followed by a considerable cession of country.

The end of the year 1824 had been conspicuous for a system of reckless speculation, chiefly among the mercantile classes, which affected the country in the two following years, by producing depression and much misery. There were at this time but few stirring events in home politics. Disorder and outrage had ceased, and with their termination arose a growing desire for parliamentary reform, for the amelioration of the criminal law, and the removal of religious disabilities. On the death of Lord Liverpool in 1827, Mr Canning, a man of commanding eloquence and fine genius, was made prime minister, and, as he was countenanced by the whig party, he was expected to lend his aid to these reforms. He repudiated, however, some of those which were most eagerly desired, while the aristocracy disliked him because he did not owe his rise to family connexions. Attacked on both sides, his short and troubled duration of power was terminated by death, and he was succeeded by Lord Goderich, who found the reins of government too heavy for his hands. In January 1828, a new ministry was formed by the Duke of Wellington, aided by Sir Robert Peel.

5. From the formation of this ministry we may trace the commencement of a series of alterations which have ever since been in progress, founded on the principle of adapting the constitution and laws of the country to the wants of the age, and thus in many cases altering or undoing the legislation of former times. One of these was the repeal of the corporation and test-acts, which required the sacrament to be taken according to the Church of England practice as a qualification  
 A. D. }  
 1828. } for being a magistrate or other officer of a corporation. This was followed by a measure which was much more strenuously resisted, and which it was maintained that the Wellington ministry were bound to have opposed—the emancipation of the Roman-catholics from the principal disqualifications to which they were subjected. By the act of 1829 they were, with one or two exceptions, made eligible to any civil office, and entitled to sit in parliament. The passing of this measure was attributed at the time to the influence possessed over the Irish people by Mr Daniel O'Connell, a barrister of great ability, and possessed of a ready fund of popular oratory, which he did not always use with good taste. The Wellington ministry left behind it another memorial, in a sweeping amendment of the criminal law, calculated to make punishments less severe but more certain. The police of the metropolis was at the same time re-organized,—a measure which has had a great effect in increasing the safety of life and property. Another

act of this ministry has since then been swept from the statute book—the sliding scale on the price of grain. It derived its name from the circumstance that the duty on imported grain rose and fell with the fluctuations of the home-market,—the duty being high when corn was cheap, and low when it was dear.

The Catholic Emancipation Act created considerable disunion among the friends of the government, many of whom went into opposition, while their place was supplied from the moderate reformers. On several occasions motions had been made for a reform in parliament, by disfranchising small places from which the inhabitants had disappeared, and giving votes to large towns such as Manchester. They were always lost; but the party in favour of reform daily increased in strength, and it was a common opinion, both in the legislature and elsewhere, that a constitutional change was not now to be long delayed. In February 1830, the Marquis of Blandford brought forward a motion on the subject, which was deemed premature, and received little support even from the friends of reform. Lord John Russell moved a series of resolutions, to the effect that it was expedient to increase the number of members in the house, to extend representation to the large manufacturing towns, and to increase it in counties of great wealth and population; but the resolutions were rejected by a considerable majority.

6. WILLIAM IV.—George the Fourth died at Windsor on the 26th of June 1830, and was succeeded by his brother William IV., a man of less selfish disposition and more popular manners. The deceased king had not been a month consigned to the tomb when an event took place in France which had a great influence over the destinies of Britain. The second French Revolution occurred at the end of July, and Louis Philippe was placed on the throne. The effect of such outbreaks on the continent has in general been to produce a cautious conservative reaction in Britain; but in this instance it was otherwise, for a large portion of the middle and upper classes had made up their minds strenuously to urge on a reform in parliament; and the example of a neighbouring people, driven to a bloody revolution by an illiberal government, was a favourable opportunity for rallying the country in favour of an amendment of the representative system. The king, too, was understood to be highly in favour of any measure for strengthening the popular part of the constitution, as the best security for its existence as a whole. Large meetings were held throughout the country, in which the working-classes participated in an orderly and judicious manner, and without

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that violence and extravagance which have often characterized their political demonstrations. A new king rendered a new parliament necessary; and all these circumstances having their influence on the elections, a large number of the members returned were thorough reformers. On the assembling of parliament, however, the Duke of Wellington, as prime minister, with his usual candour, declared himself directly opposed to any such measure. From this moment, he, at other times the most popular man in Britain, became an object of general dislike by the populace, and was even subjected to personal risk. It is usual for the sovereign in the first year of his reign to dine in the city with the Lord Mayor of London; but on this occasion Sir Robert Peel intimated that, with the advice of his ministers, the king intended to postpone his visit. It was evident from this that violence was dreaded, but it was said that the hostile feeling was solely against the Duke of Wellington. In the House of Commons, the ministry were early left in a minority, and thus an opportunity was given for the expected change. Earl Grey was placed at the head of the new cabinet, which had the aid of Lord John Russell, Lord Althorp, Mr Stanley, and Mr Jeffrey.

7. On the 1st of March Lord John Russell announced the Reform Bill, and was listened to with intense interest. It was a much more comprehensive measure than any party had expected; and one of the supporters of the ministry afterwards said that "it took away his breath." To understand the nature of this measure, it is necessary to look to some changes which had taken place in the constitution by the lapse of years. The members of the House of Lords were legislators by virtue of their rank given by the monarch, and transferred by hereditary succession,—the commons were representatives of the people, as divided into town and country districts. Some towns, however, had dwindled away and disappeared, while the practice of electing a representative for them still continued—Gatton, Grampound, and Old Sarum, were examples of this. The last named, from having been a cathedral city, had not even a single inhabitant. In these instances the commons were not representatives of any portion of the people, for the landlord took the seat himself, or gave it to whom he pleased. Thus a part of the House of Commons had become hereditary like peerages instead of being representative; and it was considered still more objectionable that these seats should be bought and sold like ordinary commodities. In some considerable places, too, the right of election had been gradually restricted to a small or peculiar portion of the people, while several large towns

of recent growth were wholly unrepresented. The general principles of the proposed reform were, that a number of the smaller boroughs were to be disfranchised, and that by these means, and a small addition to the number of members, representatives should be given to the large towns. In order to include the middle classes of society, the right of voting was proposed to be given in the counties to all male owners of lands worth £10 a-year or upwards, and to tenants of lands worth £50 a-year; while in the towns those who occupied houses worth £10 a-year, whether their own property or as tenants, were to become entitled to a vote. There is no doubt that the bill not only proposed to take a great deal of power from some portions of the community, but likewise a source of emolument, since the most saleable of the seats were to be abolished, and commerce in the others rendered more difficult.

8. It is not on the whole wonderful that such a measure met with strenuous resistance. Its reception by the House of Commons was not promising. In a division on the second reading there was a majority of only one in its favour, and on another a majority of eight against it. The people had, however, declared for parliamentary reform in a manner in which they had never before done in support of any political object. The largest public meetings that had ever been known were held throughout the country, and they expressed their sentiments in rational but resolute terms. In the midst of this excitement parliament was dissolved, and the new House of Commons showed an overwhelming majority in favour of the bill. Its third reading was carried on the 22d of September by 347 to 238. The ordeal of the House of Lords had still to be passed; and most men trembled for the fate of the measure there, for the peers were deeply interested in keeping up the "pocket boroughs," as they were called, and were but ill acquainted with the feeling of the country. It was severely criticised and attacked, and on the second reading lost by 199 to 158. The results were very alarming. The assemblages of the people, which though large had been orderly, grew menacing and turbulent. On the occasion of a gentleman who had taken an active part against the reform making his official entry into Bristol, a serious riot broke out, in which several houses were burned, a vast quantity of property destroyed, and several lives lost. At length the excitement was allayed by an intimation that the bill would be brought in again, altered in its form to satisfy the rules against repeating the same measure in one session, but not changed in its sub-



stance. The nation now looked to the firmness of the king, and poured in addresses, beseeching him to use all constitutional means to get the bill passed. This time the second reading was carried in the Lords by a majority of nine. This was, however, only a preface to a set of alterations which would have completely changed its whole character. When it was seen that this was the design of the majority the ministry resigned, and the king sent for the Duke of Wellington to form an administration. The country never had, since the Revolution of 1688 and the Hanoverian succession, been in so critical a position. Many people, at other times peaceable and averse to violence, spoke openly of resistance. The commons were called on to refuse all supplies, and a plan was formed for virtually withdrawing them, by combining against payment of the direct taxes, and abstaining from the use of articles which paid customs or excise duties. A formidable power was exercised by the political unions, which had the means of assembling vast multitudes at a moment's warning. The middle-classes and even a large portion of the aristocracy, if they would not join the people in resistance, would at all events decline to take a part in crushing them. Trade was interrupted; and finally there was a run for gold upon the Bank of England, partly caused by a desire to bring about the embarrassment of a national bankruptcy, partly by fear. In these circumstances the king appealed to the unwilling lords, whether they would incur the terrible risk of a continued opposition; and it was understood that if they did so the ministry were authorized to offer peerages to as many of their own supporters as they pleased. The opposition at last gave way, and the bill received the royal assent on the 17th June 1832, amid the acclamations of the people.

9. The first parliament elected under the Reform Bill showed a vast preponderance in favour of the government. Among the earliest of the great measures which it undertook was one that cast lustre on the age and on the British nation, and will be remembered to all time coming, when the divisions between Whig and Tory and the Reform Bill itself shall have been forgotten. It had long been the doctrine of our law that no person could be a slave on British ground, and that from the moment when the negro trod our soil he became a free man. In 1833, an act was passed for abolishing slavery throughout all the British colonies; but as the owners of slaves had been permitted by law to hold them, and they were a valuable property, for which large sums had been paid, it was thought fair that the nation should compensate them for the

loss they were about to sustain. For this purpose the enormous sum of twenty millions sterling was advanced. The same year was distinguished by the renewal of the charter of the East India Company, by which their monopoly was restricted, and the trade opened to private enterprise.

In the following year a measure of great importance to the social condition of England was passed. The poor law, which had been originally intended as a means of succouring the sickly, aged, and disabled, or of affording the able-bodied relief in exchange for labour, had been much abused, the idle and the vicious preferring its precarious relief to the bread of honest industry. An act was passed for checking these abuses of the system, which were rapidly corrupting the morals and undermining the independence of the people. It had the immediate effect of reducing the pressure of the poor rates from seven or eight millions to about five.

The turbulent state of Ireland had induced ministers to bring in from time to time what were called Coercion Bills. One of these measures in 1834 caused a difference of opinion in the cabinet, on which Lord Grey retired, and Lord Melbourne succeeded him as prime minister. After the adjournment of the parliament in the autumn of 1834, Lord Althorp, who was chancellor of the exchequer, on his father's death went to the House of Peers, where he could not hold that office. When the king was waited on for the purpose of making an arrangement to fill the vacant office, he intimated, to the astonishment of those who heard him, and afterwards of the country at large, that he intended to change his ministry. The secret reasons of this determination have never been fully known. Sir Robert Peel, who was travelling in Italy, was suddenly sent for, and he agreed to form a cabinet, but the attempt was premature. A storm was raised through all the country, and parliament was called on to refuse the supplies to the new administration. Defeated night after night in the House of Commons, they were obliged to resign; and on the 18th May 1835, Lord Melbourne announced his return to office. The first proceeding under his renewed administration was to reform the political corporations, by an act giving the middle class citizens at large the right of electing the magistrates and town-councils. Few events of great importance occurred in England from this period to the death of King William on the 20th of June 1837.

10. VICTORIA.—The successor to the throne was Victoria, only child of Edward, duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. She was but eighteen years old at her accession, but an

act of parliament had made her legally of age. The effort to displace the whigs in 1834, though it had not been successful, had weakened them for a time; but the popularity attending the accession of a young queen, whom the people did not wish to disturb with party conflicts, had a considerable effect in strengthening them. The ministry, however, had not one of those vigorous majorities which enable statesmen to carry through great party measures, and thus the history of the country does not for some years show any very important changes. The reform of the courts of law, and the abolition of arbitrary and excessive punishments, along with improvements in prison discipline, were the chief occupations of parliament; while the government had on its hands the suppression of a rebellion which had broken out in Canada, and threatened at one time to cause the severance of the American colonies from the empire.

The year 1839 was unhappily remarkable for the commencement of a period of depression in trade, and for the proceedings of a new political body called Chartists. They were so styled from a document or Charter, framed in 1838, which laid down six demands or points. 1st, Vote by ballot—meaning such a method of secret voting at elections as might prevent the voter from being bribed or intimidated; 2d, Universal suffrage—meaning a right in every male person twenty-one years old to vote at elections; 3d, Annual parliaments—or an annual general election; 4th, Equality of electoral districts—making the representatives correspond to the number of inhabitants; 5th, The abolition of the law requiring that a man should have property to be entitled to sit in parliament; and, 6th, The payment of members. Whatever differences of opinion there might be about these demands, there is no doubt that it was only the just right of the chartists to support their views by persuasion, and all the constitutional means which the inhabitants of this realm enjoy. But unfortunately some of the leaders recommended their followers to resort to violence. The body was thus divided into two parties—the one called the Moral force, and the other the Physical force Chartists. Fortunately the government had so much reliance on the peaceable disposition of the great majority of the people, that it was not considered necessary to take any extraordinary means of protection. The only step adopted by the authorities was to prohibit large midnight meetings held by torchlight, where firearms were discharged, to the disturbance and alarm of the inhabitants of some of the large towns. There was a riot in Birmingham, and a more

serious outbreak at Newport, in South Wales. Some individuals were punished for being engaged in these seditious proceedings; but no undue severity was exercised, and the spirit of disaffection gradually died away.

10. The whig party had been now with a short interval about eight years in office, and during the latter part of this time they had been gradually losing their influence in parliament. There had been some difficulties in the West Indian colonies about the application of the law for abolishing slavery. Some resolutions had been passed by the Legislative Assembly of Jamaica, which induced the ministers to bring in a bill to suspend the constitution of that province. In a  
 A. D. } division on this measure the government had only a  
 1839. } majority of five, and on the 7th of May they resigned. It was understood that Sir Robert Peel was to form a conservative ministry, but a difficulty of a peculiar kind intervened. Sir Robert insisted on the right to dismiss the ladies attending on her majesty's person, commonly called the ladies of the bed-chamber, and to appoint others favourable to his own policy in their stead. The queen was naturally disinclined to part with her friends, and having laid the matter before a cabinet council, she was advised not to consent to such a claim. The whig ministry returned to power, with considerable increase of popularity throughout the country, as the required condition was thought to be harsh and unnecessary. In the ensuing year the nation saw with great satisfaction their youthful sovereign united to her cousin, Prince Albert, a younger son of the Duke of Saxe-Cobourg and Gotha, a small German state.

The British empire had now enjoyed peace, at least so far as Europe and its neighbourhood were concerned, for twenty-five years, when hostilities were commenced which threatened to cause a general war. Mohammed Ali, the pasha of Egypt, a bold and clever man, had improved the condition of the country and elevated his own position, and now he wished to throw off his dependence on Turkey, and become an independent monarch. It was feared that in this case his territory, after his decease, might fall a prey to one of the European powers—to France or Russia. Britain demanded that the pasha should still acknowledge the authority of Turkey, and as he refused to do so, his towns of Beyrout and Acre were bombarded, and he was forced to submit. These events gave great umbrage to France, and war was threatened, but the danger passed away. The year 1840 was more profitably signalized by the adoption of the general penny postage system throughout the empire.

12. The strength and influence of the government having gone on decreasing, they found themselves in August 1841 in a decided minority, and were obliged to resign. The tory party were restored to office, with Sir Robert Peel at their head. A very powerful body throughout the country now urgently demanded free trade, especially in grain. It had long been a belief that a nation impoverished itself by buying from others; and, accordingly, pains were taken to lay such heavy duties on the articles brought from foreign countries that the purchase of them was limited, and sometimes altogether stopped. The free-traders maintained that this was a great loss to the community, for the more it bought, the more it sold and produced, and the richer it became. How this occurred was explained by showing that all foreign produce must be bought by exporting home produce. If we bought so much grain from Germany, and even paid for it in gold, this was the same as paying for it in our own manufactures; because, to get the gold, we must send manufactures to the countries which produce it. These doctrines were everywhere vigorously inculcated, and made many converts. At first Sir Robert Peel's government gave only partial effect to them. An act was passed in 1841, lowering but not abolishing the sliding scale on grain, and several other duties on imports were reduced. Every year of Sir Robert Peel's administration saw some approach towards the doctrines of free trade. At length a crisis was brought about by a signal failure in the potato crop of 1845, which threatened to be followed by a greater deficiency in 1846, and to create a famine in Ireland. The best means for the mitigation of its miseries appeared to be the encouragement of the importation of food; and accordingly, in 1846, after a struggle second only to that for the Reform Bill, the principles of free trade triumphed. The duty on grain and other articles of food was virtually abolished, and a new tariff was prepared, in which all the import duties were reduced, and many abolished. Having accomplished these important changes, Sir Robert Peel's government resigned in July 1846.

13. Some events of considerable importance occurred in connexion with our eastern empire during this ministry. In Afghanistan, the territory on the northern boundary of the British possessions, a hostile spirit was displayed, in consequence of Russian intrigues, and it became necessary to support a candidate for the throne who was favourable to the British interests, and would not be likely to encourage an invasion of the East India Company's territory. The matter appeared to have been satisfactorily arranged, when in December 1841, some of

the treacherous tribes having conspired together, rose in a mass, and caused dreadful slaughter among the British troops. It was necessary to inflict signal punishment for the offence, and next year a British force overran the country, and destroyed the fortresses. There was, however, a neighbouring potentate, friendly to the British—Runjeet Singh, rajah of Lahore—who had collected a powerful army, which on his death was a very troublesome neighbour, projecting repeated invasions of the British territory; and it was found impossible to preserve tranquillity on this frontier until, in 1849, a large portion of the late rajah's territory, called the Punjaub, was annexed to Britain. The Chinese government had, on the other side of our eastern empire, courted a war by their insolence and folly, in seizing on valuable merchandise, and oppressing the British authorities. It appeared that the emperor's government were alarmed at the quantity of money which left the country to pay for opium. They tried to prohibit the people from buying the drug, and being unable to accomplish this, endeavoured to prevent its sale. This led to a war, in which the Chinese were much astonished by the rapidity with which our war-steamers destroyed their fortresses and huge war-junks. In 1842, they were glad to obtain peace on very humiliating terms.

When Sir Robert Peel resigned, a ministry was formed under Lord John Russell, which carried on the free trade policy into farther details, especially by the repeal of the navigation laws, which gave peculiar privileges to vessels built in Britain and manned by British seamen. An extraordinary speculation in railway and other joint-stock companies had been gradually extending, and in 1846 it came to a climax. The railway bills passed in that one year authorized the expenditure of upwards of a hundred and thirty millions of pounds sterling. This caused a scarcity of money, and coming along with the potato disease, created a disastrous commercial panic in 1847. The nation was just recovering from this when it was thrown back by the continental revolutions of 1848, which completely paralyzed trade and industry throughout the world. The steadiness with which the tranquillity of this country was preserved during that memorable year was highly creditable to the character of the people. An attempt was made to create a disturbance in London, but it was put down by the firmness of the well disposed citizens, who formed an army of two hundred thousand special constables. Trade began to revive in 1849, and in 1850 the official returns showed in each month a great increase of exports. The middle of the century saw

manufactures flourishing, food cheap, and the working classes well employed.

### EXERCISES.

1. How far has the peace from 1815 to 1850 been interrupted? Give a description of the effect produced on the country by the expenses of the war. How was it felt peculiarly when the war came to an end? What was the state of the country? What class of persons was employed by the government? What alarms were felt and investigations conducted? What were the objects of the Six Acts? Describe what took place at Manchester

2. Who was the Princess Charlotte? To whom was she united? What was the effect of her death? When did George III. die? What were his personal qualifications? What was the character of his reign?

3. What events marked the commencement of the reign of George IV.? Who was at the head of the conspiracy? Where did an actual outbreak take place? What was the history of the queen? What measure was brought in to affect her? What was its fate?

4. What were the chief foreign operations of George IV.'s reign? How was the Birman Empire situated in relation to the British dominions in the East? What inroads were made on these dominions? What was the result of the Burmese war? What opinions made progress in the country? Give an account of Canning and his career as prime minister. Who succeeded him?

5. What may be traced to the formation of this ministry? What were the Corporation and Test acts? When were they repealed? What was the object of the Catholic Emancipation act? To whose influence was it attributed? What other measures did the Wellington ministry carry? What effect on parties had the Emancipation act? What measure was repeatedly brought forward and lost? What was the object of the Marquis of Blandford's motion?

6. When did William IV. succeed to the crown? What event soon afterwards occurred in Paris? What was its effect on the public mind of this country? What were understood to be the sentiments of the king? How was the feeling of the country exhibited? What effect had it on the election? What took place as to the king and the city of London? Give an account of the ministerial change which took place?

7. When and by whom was the Reform Bill announced? How did it correspond with the expectations about it? Give a general account of the state of things which it was designed to remedy. Give an account of the means by which the bill proposed to remedy the defects, and of the franchise which it established.

8. What were the results of the earlier divisions on the measure? What was their effect on the country? What change of parliament took place? How was the measure received by the new House of Commons? How was it received by the peers? Describe the effects of their opposition. How was the measure brought before them again? What plans were adopted for obviating the opposition? When did the bill pass?

9. How did the first reformed parliament stand affected? Give an account of a great measure passed by it. What other measures were passed in the same year? What change was made on the poor law? What measure relating to Ireland created ministerial disagreement?

What occurred when Lord Althorp ceased to be chancellor of the exchequer? What was the result of the change of ministry which took place? What measure was carried by the Melbourne government on its restoration? When did William IV. die?

10. How was Queen Victoria related to George IV.? What was the effect of her accession? What was the general character of the ministerial operations which followed it? What new political body arose? Give an account of the objects which the chartists professed to desire. What two classes were they divided into? What steps were taken by the authorities? Where did outbreaks take place?

11. What had been the position of the whig ministry? What division in parliament seemed to necessitate a change of ministry? How was it that Sir Robert Peel's attempt to constitute a ministry failed? Describe the events in the East from which a European war was apprehended. What postal arrangement was adopted in 1840?

12. When did the whig ministry resign? Who was at the head of the new cabinet? What demands were made by a new party? What were the ideas under which the old protective laws were passed? What doctrines were taught by the free-trade party? Describe the steps taken for the mitigation of the protective system. What event caused it to be swept away? What ministerial event occurred immediately afterwards?

13. What line of policy was thought necessary in relation to Afghanistan? What occurred there in the winter of 1841? What measures of retaliation were adopted? What events led to the annexation of the Punjaub? Give a general account of the Chinese war. What ministry followed Sir Robert Peel's? What policy did it carry out? What came to a crisis in 1846? What were the effects of the speculation mania? What effect had the revolutions of 1848 in this country? Describe its state in the middle of the century.





# GENEALOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF THE

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

	Names.	Genealogy.	Began to reign in the year	Reigned years	Reign ended in the year
Anglo-Saxon Line—15.	Egbert,*	Son of Cerdic, a Saxon general,	827	9	836
	Ethelwulf,	Son of Egbert,	836	21	858
	Ethelbald,	Son of Ethelwulf,	858	2	860
	Ethelbert,	Son of Ethelwulf,	860	6	866
	Ethelred I.	Son of Ethelwulf,	866	5	871
	Alfred,	Son of Ethelwulf,	871	30	901
	Edward I.†	Son of Alfred,	901	24	925
	Athelstan,‡	Son of Edward I.	925	15	940
	Edmund I.	Brother of Athelstan,	940	6	946
	Edred,	Brother of Edmund I.	946	9	955
	Edwy,	Nephew of Edred,	955	4	959
	Edgar,	Brother of Edwy,	959	16	975
	Edward II.§	Son of Edgar,	975	3	978
	Ethelred II.	Son of Edgar,	978	38	1016
	Edmund II.	Son of Ethelred,	1016	1	1017
Danish Line—3.	Canute,	King of Denmark,	1017	19	1036
	Harold I.	Son of Canute,	1036	3	1039
	Hardicanute,	Son of Canute,	1039	2	1041
Saxon Line—2.	Edward III.¶	Brother of Hardicanute,	1041	25	1066
	Harold II.	Son of Earl Godwin, a popular English nobleman.	1066	Nearly 1	1066

\* First king of Wessex.

† Commonly called the Elder.

‡ In the reign of this prince, the proper monarchy of England was established.

§ Commonly called the Martyr.

|| Commonly called Edmund Ironside.

¶ Commonly called the Confessor.

**GENEALOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE**  
OF THE  
ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS SINCE THE CONQUEST.

	Names.	Genealogy.	Began to reign in the year	Reigned years	Reign ended in the year
Norman Line—3.	William I.*	Duke of Normandy,	1066	21	1067
	William II.†	Son of William I.	1067	13	1100
	Henry I.	Son of William I.	1100	35	1135
House of Blois—1.	Stephen,	Nephew of Henry I.	1135	19	1154
	Henry II.	Grandson of Henry I.	1154	35	1189
	Richard I.	Son of Henry II.	1189	10	1199
Plantagenet Line—8.	John,	Son of Henry II.	1199	17	1216
	Henry III.	Son of John,	1216	56	1272
	Edward I.	Son of Henry III.	1272	35	1307
	Edward II.	Son of Edward I.	1307	20	1327
	Edward III.	Son of Edward II.	1327	50	1377
	Richard II.	Grandson of Edward III.	1377	22	1399
House of Lancaster—3.	Henry IV.	Son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster,	1399	14	1413
	Henry V.	Son of Henry IV.	1413	9	1422
	Henry VI.	Son of Henry V.	1422	39	1461
House of York—3.	Edward IV.	Grandson of Lionel, son of Edward III.	1461	22	1483
	Edward V.	Son of Edward IV.	1483	10 wks	1483
	Richard III.	Brother of Edward IV.	1483	2 years	1485
	Henry VII.	A descendant of John of Gaunt,	1485	24	1509
House of Tudor—5	Henry VIII.	Son of Henry VII.	1509	38	1547
	Edward VI.	Son of Henry VIII.	1547	6	1553
	Mary,	Daughter of Henry VIII.	1553	5	1558
	Elizabeth,	Daughter of Henry VIII.	1558	45	1603
	James I.	Son of Mary Queen of Scots,	1603	22	1625
Stewart Line—4.	Charles I.	Son of James I.	1625	24	1649†
	Charles II.	Son of Charles I.	1660	25	1685
	James II.	Son of Charles I.	1685	3	1688
House of Orange—1.	William and Mary,	Son-in-law, and Daughter of James II.	1688	W. 14 M. 6	1702
	Anne,	Daughter of James II.	1702	12	1714
Stewart Line—1.	George I.	Great-grandson of James I.	1714	13	1727
	George II.	Son of George I.	1727	33	1760
	George III.	Grandson of George II.	1760	60	1820
	George IV.	Son of George III.	1820	10	1830
	William IV.	Son of George III.	1830	7	1837
	Victoria,	Niece of William IV.	1837		

\* Surnamed the Conqueror, whom Edward the Confessor wished to succeed to the crown.

† Surnamed William Rufus.

‡ Cromwell usurped the government from this period till September 1658; he was succeeded by his son Richard, who was deposed April 1659.

THE END.

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